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ABSTRACT

This handbook shares methodologies for guiding teacher preparation and licensing. It provides a rationale for the inclusion of teacher work sample methodology in preparation and licensing programs, describes how student learning is the central concept within teacher work samples, explains how to teach students and teachers about work samples, and supports teacher educators who need to work with their colleagues in reviewing, adapting/adopting, and implementing the methodology. The 17 chapters are: (1) "Connecting Teaching and Learning: An Introduction to Teacher Work Sample Methodology" (H. Del Schalock and David Myton); (2) "Teacher Work Sample Methodology with a Standards Orientation" (H. Del Schalock); (3) "Assessing Teacher Work Samples" (Mark D. Schalock); (4) "Values Offered by Teacher Work Sample Methodology" (Gerald R. Girod, Mary Mangan Reynolds, Helen E. Woods, and H. Del Schalock); (5) "An Overview of Teacher Work Sample Methodology" (Gerald R. Girod); (6) "Concepts and Skills Necessary To Plan a Teacher Work Sample" (Gerald R. Girod); (7) "Adapting Teacher Work Sample Plans and Instruction to Pupils' Needs" (Elizabeth A. Dohrn); (8) "Instructional Strategies in a Teacher Work Sample" (Gerald R. Girod); (9) "Teaching the Necessary Assessment Concepts and Skills for a Teacher Work Sample" (Gerald R. Girod and Robert Ayres); (10) "Summary, Interpretation, and Reflection in a Teacher Work Sample" (Susan Nelson Wood); (11) "Practice and Feedback for Those Preparing a Teacher Work Sample" (Gerald R. Girod); (12) "Successfully Supervising Students Implementing Teacher Work Samples" (E. Michelle Pardew); (13) "Structuring Preparation Programs To Accommodate Teacher Work Sample Methodology" (Meredith M. Brodsky); (14) "Does TWSM Work?" (Gerald R. Girod and Mark D. Schalock); (15) "Teacher Work Sample Methodology in Early Childhood and Elementary

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Preparation Programs: A Case Study" (David M. A. Wright); (16) "Teacher Work Sample Methodology in Middle Level/High School Preparation: A Case Study" (Robert Ayres and Randall K. Engle); and (17) "Teacher Work Sample Methodology in Special Education Preparation: A Case Study" (Elizabeth A. Dohrn). Appendixes include mini-work samples, guidelines related to work samples, Evaluation Forms for Student Teaching Supervisors, a TWS (Teacher Work Sample) observation form, and a Competencies Checklist. (Contains 69 tables, 62 figures, and 15 boxes. Most papers contain references.) (SM)

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A Handbook for Teacher Educators on Teacher Work Sample Methodology

Gerald R. Girod, Editor

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Foreword

by David Imig and Carol Smith,
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education

Among the controversies that now surround preparing teachers, the issue most strongly contested (though perhaps least often articulated) is the question of how instructional practice of teachers is actually linked to learning of their students. And how do teachers learn effective ways to bring about a positive impact on student learning?

These questions, which are at the center of political and policy debates, have already filtered through to state and district accountability systems that increasingly emphasize "student achievement" as the bottom line concern. The research of William Sanders and others with students in Tennessee has focused the question even more pointedly: How much do students gain or lose as a result of their instruction with a particular teacher? School reward systems outlined in recently enacted federal legislation also tie performance of individual teachers to rewards, sanctions, and prescribed allocation of federal monies.

But teacher educators are not merely looking for answers that work in the political arena; they are struggling to identify ways of preparing teachers for early and effective attention to how students in their classes are actually learning and how students' learning can be improved and supported. A common observation on the developmental track of novice teachers is that, in the almost universal trajectory, new teachers first are preoccupied with issues of classroom management and only later gain the capacity to devote more attention to individual students and their achievement. Even with preservice preparation programs incorporating more field experiences and courses based in clinical settings, new teachers will always face some degree of adjustment to the challenges of full-time responsibility. Given these realities, is there a way in which teacher preparation can accelerate the development track, providing candidates with tools that focus their attention on the instructional needs and progress of their students?

Some years ago, in the context of Oregon's extensive state framework for articulation of P-12 and teacher education standards, researchers and faculty at Western Oregon University set out to find answers to that question. These educators outlined an approach in which teacher candidates are explicitly taught and practice a model that links preinstructional planning, conduct of the instructional process, and subsequent reflection with a strong emphasis on assembling and analyzing data about their students' learning and growth. The handbook we present here is a description of how this approach, termed ***teacher work sample methodology,*** plays out both in concept and as it is implemented in a teacher education program.

We present the handbook, first of all, to gain more attention among teacher educators to this central question of teacher impact on students' learning and achievement. The teacher work sample model is being highlighted here not because it is the only approach to this question, but because this model has received extensive developmental attention from theoretical conception to implementation in multiple programs. We hope to spur the adaptation and modification of this model by many institutions that may find somewhat different ways of going about the same task. We do this in the belief that, whatever framework is adopted to link teaching practice with student learning, the core elements of this approach as elements of good teaching practice are virtually unavoidable.

Development of the work sample model represents teacher educators taking the lead in a strategy of "simultaneous renewal" of teacher preparation and P-12 schooling. A variety of states are now experimenting with this model to help shape approval of teacher education programs, to guide licensure of beginning teachers, and to serve as a framework for state-developed new teacher induction programs. The teacher work sample approach is responsive to the pressures of accountability through its emphasis on the role and importance of data about students and their learning. This model may even provide an alternative concept to challenge single-measure test results as the characterization of teacher impact on students' learning. It is a more complex and yet more straightforward approach, because the work sample model does not attempt to measure out of context and then consider how contextual factors impact students' learning and performance.

The real value of the teacher work sample approach is that student learning is its central concept. This poses new challenges for teacher educators in that it heads toward complex areas of classroom interaction between teachers and students. That is the heart of this challenge: It is both what teacher educators do best and where we have the most critical work waiting to be done.

January 2002

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Preface

Teacher work sample methodology is based on a design for instructing and assessing teachers that reflects what the professional literature indicates are effective planning, instruction, assessment, and reflective teaching strategies. Teacher work sample methodology is a systematic approach to replicating many of the steps that good teachers have been found to take.

Yet teacher work sample methodology is not based on "effective practices" research. Rather, the scholarly source is a theoretical and conceptual approach that has emanated from what we believe is necessary to ensure that all children learn. Teacher work sample methodology is more about children than about, as its name implies, teachers. The methodology flows naturally from a set of concepts professionals from around the country have helped develop to assure that those who teach bring about learning in their pupils. Almost all of the conceptual strands that underlie work samples do, however, find empirical support in the effective practices research.

HANDBOOK PURPOSES

Several purposes underlie the preparation of this handbook. The first is to share what the handbook authors believe to be a very useful set of methodologies for guiding teacher preparation and licensure. We also believe that teacher work sampling is consistent with and facilitates the aims of most of the significant current educational reform efforts. As such, we think we have an obligation to make known to our professional colleagues how the methodology might be appropriate for their settings.

Second, we believe that teacher education professionals are, of necessity, central to the long-term success of the reform movement—though, up to this point, they have been largely observers rather than leaders. Teacher work sample methodology is a powerful lever that we believe will allow teacher educators to attain their appropriate position as guides of educational reform.

Therefore, this handbook has been written for teacher educators and those who wish to improve schooling as well as the preparation of school personnel. Our mission includes the following goals.

- Provide a rationale for the inclusion of teacher work sample methodology in preparation and licensing programs.
- Describe how pupil learning is the central concept within teacher work samples.
- Explain how to teach students and teachers about work samples.

- Support teacher educators who need to work with their colleagues in reviewing, adapting/adopting, and implementing the methodology.

Another major contribution of the handbook, we hope, is to provide materials that support the instructional and assessment activities required of teacher education faculty choosing to implement the methodology.

HANDBOOK STRUCTURE

The handbook is constructed to help achieve the four purposes stated in the preceding paragraph. Section I presents four chapters that describe teacher work sample methodology, how it is related to other reform efforts, the measures devised to determine how successful students are in developing and implementing work samples, and the core concepts which make up the methodology. The discussion of measures is included later in the section (chapter 3), because we have found that those interested in teacher work samples found the greatest help in understanding our work as soon as they inspected the assessment instruments. The second chapter explains how teacher work sample methodology fits with the standards-based reform currently so influential across the nation. Chapter 4 describes the differences between the Western Oregon University teacher education program before TWSM existed and what it is like now.

Section II provides suggestions to teacher educators on instructional strategies they might use as they prepare their students to use the methodology. Eight chapters are devoted to descriptions of practices Western faculty have found useful in providing an overview of work sample methodology, explaining to students how to design and develop work samples, arranging for practice and feedback activities, and preparing for and carrying out supervisory procedures around all of these activities, including when students are teaching a work sample unit. Section II also will be found useful by professors who may already be involved in instructing students about teacher work samples, as the chapters are rich resources of additional teaching activities and approaches.

Section III is directed to facilitators of change within a teacher preparation program. We have presented ideas we think may be helpful in deciding how to go about implementing teacher work samples and how to answer questions from one's associates about the potential advantages and disadvantages of the methodology. Preparation program administrators, such as deans, directors, and chairs, will likely find this section instructive.

Section IV contains three case studies describing the decisions Western faculty had to make when teacher work sample methodology was incorporated within their respective teacher preparation programs. Because each program had its own idiosyncratic considerations when teacher work samples became a component, we thought it would be informative to read about the context-specific decisions faculty made.

The appendixes provide content and sources such as papers which expand on ideas related to the methodology, displays and explanations of work sample measures, and several mini-teacher work samples, some of which include evaluative comments.

DEFINITIONS

There are several concepts discussed in this handbook that we have described with specific, possibly even restrictive, language.

Cooperating teacher—the person who is a classroom teacher in the K-12 school setting who helps provide supervision for a practicum student or student teacher. In most teacher preparation programs, two types of supervisors are provided. The cooperating teacher, one of those supervisor types, is also described in the handbook as the *mentor teacher, public school teacher,* and *classroom teacher.*

Practicing teacher—a person completing a teacher work sample as part of the requirements for an advanced or continuing license. In some states, including Oregon, such persons may be completing their application through a school district and not as part of a university program. They are, in those instances, not students. Similarly, the descriptions of teacher work sample employment with practicing teachers in Louisiana involve licensure candidates who are not students in a college or university program, but are seeking a permanent license off campus through their state's teacher licensing agency.

Pupils—a word used exclusively to denote children in a K-12 setting. On occasion, the synonyms *children* or *learners* have been used.

Students—a word we have used exclusively to identify the collegian learning to become a teacher. Sometimes the person is also called a *prospective teacher,* a *preservice teacher,* or a *candidate.* Because we often needed to discuss both the college student and the learners they teach in the same sentence, we found it confusing to use the word *student* as the descriptor for both groups. A *student* is a college learner in this handbook; a *pupil* is a K-12 learner being taught by a college student. When we have included quotes from other authors who have used the word student to describe children in a K-12 school, we have retained the usage of the author.

Teacher work sample—the product students or teachers develop to demonstrate a significant portion of their professional skills including their ability to foster pupil learning. The product also includes ratings of teaching performance provided by the individual's direct supervisors. The teacher work sample is a packet of materials developed or collected by students to demonstrate their teaching proficiency. On occasion, the shortened term *work* *sample* is used as a synonym. Within the handbook, the abbreviation *TWS* or *TWSs* is used to represent the concept.

Teacher work sample methodology—the processes employed in the development and implementation of teacher work samples. The term *methodology* comprises five processes which will be discussed in greater detail later in the handbook: (a) developmental, (b) instructional, (c) documentation, (d) analytical, and (e) interpretative skills associated with planning, carrying out, and evaluating one's own work sample. The abbreviation *TWSM* is used in the handbook to represent the concept. We discuss work sample products and processes with such frequency that it is more efficient to employ the abbreviations TWS and TWSM.

Teacher work sampling—the assessment strategies and materials associated with teacher work samples. The concept of sampling is used when we are discussing measurement activities and components designed to help portray the teaching competencies of a candidate.

University supervisor—the second type of supervisor for the practicum student or student teacher. This person is also described, at times, as the *college supervisor* or *faculty member.* When both the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor are discussed in a single sentence, they are referred to as *the supervisors.*

In chapter 6, we present another set of definitions related to planning terminology—words such as *goals, benchmarks, targets,* and *objectives* (see box, "Whose Words Are the Right Words?" pp. 132-133).

CONTEXT

The ideas described in this handbook come, principally, from more than 30 years of work at Western Oregon University.[1] Though all other teacher preparation institutions in Oregon require students to develop TWSs, much of the research and development has occurred at Western. In addition, several colleagues around the country have begun to instruct their students about the methodology. Whenever possible, we have included their work in this handbook.

Western's general education preparation program is a 4-year plan that results in a bachelor's degree and a recommendation to the state's licensing agency that the candidate be granted the initial, or basic, license to teach. Students seeking to become special education teachers typically acquire that authorization as part of a master's degree program. Other institutions in Oregon also offer 4-year programs, but many recommend students for an initial license as the result of a 5th-year or graduate program. In all Oregon institutions, practicing teachers can earn an advanced or continuing license as part of a graduate program.

For either a basic or an advanced license, Oregon candidates must successfully complete two teacher work samples. We have attended only briefly in the handbook to how Oregon advanced licensure programs use TWS design and implementation. During those discussions, we have relied primarily upon the developmental activities of Russell French at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, in conjunction with his work in Louisiana, for suggestions regarding successful procedures with practicing teachers.

Readers will note that Western authors occasionally vary in their descriptions of teacher work sample components, purposes, and time lines. They use somewhat different terms and somewhat different purposes for work samples. Readers who come from the world of teacher education will not be surprised that faculty members differ in their views. Many readers may, in fact, be envious of how much agreement does exist among Western's faculty regarding the important elements associated with teacher work samples.

What Western's faculty have come to accept as an overriding principle in the design of their programs is that there are two important ideas which underlie TWSM. First, the ultimate role of a teacher preparation program is to help improve the learning of the state's schoolchildren. Second, the program's central role when working with teacher education students is to develop teachers who can independently judge their own effectiveness and who know how to improve their ability to do so. Both roles, it is thought, can be best attained through teacher work sample methodology. We hope this handbook will encourage others to make TWSM a part of their teacher preparation programs.

NOTE

1. Various authors in the handbook have referred to Western Oregon University as *Western* or *Western Oregon.*

Acknowledgments

This handbook was developed as an outgrowth of more than 30 years of conceptual development leading to a methodology for meaningfully connecting teaching and learning. For the past 15 years, this methodology has been referred to as teacher work sample methodology. During the last 10 years, administrators at Western Oregon University have underwritten an extensive program of research and development around the methodology. More recently, Atlantic Philanthropies have provided external support for a developmental activity called the Teacher Effectiveness Project, which led to the construction of several new procedures and products to extend the institution's original work with the methodology. Such support allowed us to submit the methodology to rigorous national review and refinement. One of the products developed as a result of assistance from the foundation was this handbook. Further, this project would not have been possible without the financial support of the Carnegie Corporation of New York.

There are several people and agencies who deserve accolades for their help during the last 3 decades. In this section we have selected for recognition only those who were involved in the work that led to this handbook.

Many Western Oregon administrators supported, applauded, and praised our work: Presidents Richard Meyers and Betty Youngblood; Interim President Bill Cowart; Provosts Bill Cowart, Gary Hunt, and John Minahan; College of Education Dean Emeritus Ken Myers; College of Education Dean Meredith Brodsky; Teaching Research Division Directors Victor Baldwin and Torry Piazza Templeman; and Division of Extended Programs Director Martin Morris. Each of these people, as well as others who served as handbook authors and are mentioned later, was conscientious in maintaining the Teacher Effectiveness Project. Few have experienced more support from administrators than these people have provided.

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In particular, we want to thank the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) for its help in publishing this handbook. From the very beginning, David Imig and Carol Smith encouraged our efforts, and during the preparation phases, AACTE staff took on the incredibly time-consuming task of preparing the manuscript for publication. We will always be grateful to Carol Smith, Leslie Swann, Kristin McCabe, Deborah Rouse, and Liesl Swogger for their guidance in preparing a handbook of which we can all be proud.

Several faculty from Western Oregon, as well as some from other institutions, served as handbook authors. Those colleagues are recognized in the chapter headings. Several additional faculty from Western Oregon and other colleges, however, provided their work as information sources that have been included in this handbook. These contributors include Fred Bartelheim, University of Northern Colorado; Jean Behrend, California State University at Fresno; George Cabrera, Western Oregon; Elizabeth Clewitt, Northwest Christian College (OR); Russell French, University of Tennessee, Knoxville; Beverly Herzog, Western Oregon; Steve Isaacson, Portland State University (OR); Andrew McConney, Western Oregon; Christy Perry, Dallas, OR, Public Schools; Helen Woods, Western Oregon; Amanda McConney, Western Oregon; and Paul Yeiter, Linn-Benton Education Service District (OR).

Over the years, many Western students have permitted us to print examples of their work sample components or mini-work samples. These generous people include Paul Adams, Nicole Chronister, Pam Gray, Amy Meares, David Sewall, Angella Joy Thomas, and Jennifer Turgesson.

Three people carried particularly heavy loads typing, proofing, editing, and constructing tables, figures, and graphics for the initial draft of this book: Laurel Cuthbertson, Michelle Gallagher, and Dyna Hermann. They worked tirelessly on a project that must have seemed, at times, endless. All three worked more cheerfully than the authors and editor deserved.

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G. R. G.
December 2001

Section I

Basic Structure of Teacher Work Sample Methodology

This first section of the handbook introduces the concept of teacher work sampling as a means of systematically and meaningfully connecting teaching and learning. It also describes the various applications of teacher work sampling in the context of teacher preparation and licensing. As a generalizable set of procedures for connecting pupils' learning to teachers' work, teacher work sample methodology (TWSM) has applications that extend beyond teacher education. It is within the context of teacher education, however, that the methodology was developed and to date has had its most extensive applications. The use of TWSM in teacher education is the prime focus of this section and of the handbook overall.

Teacher work sampling is a vehicle that helps prospective teachers learn to think about teaching in ways that are linked tightly and continuously to pupils' learning, to gain experience in teaching in this manner, and to demonstrate effectiveness in doing so. As such, TWSM is both a vehicle for instruction and an approach to measurement.

As a vehicle for instruction, TWSM has been designed to help teachers think about the following issues and bring them into alignment:

- What are the learning outcomes I want my pupils to accomplish?
- Which activities and instructional methodologies are appropriate or necessary for these pupils to achieve these outcomes?
- Which resources and how much time do I need to implement these activities or methodologies?
- Which assessment activities or methodologies are appropriate for these pupils and these outcomes when using these instructional methodologies?
- How successful was I at helping my pupils achieve the desired outcomes?
- What went right? What went wrong? Why?

As an approach to measurement, TWSM has been designed to portray the learning progress of pupils on outcomes desired and taught by a teacher over a sufficiently long period of time for appreciable progress in learning to occur. The methodology also has been designed to let teachers accompany the account they provide about pupils' progress in learning with information about the context in which teaching and learning occur and to interpret data about learning in light of descriptions of the context. In this contextually grounded portrayal of teaching, teachers tend to view measures of pupils' progress in learning as a meaningful and reasonable indicator of their effectiveness.

Within this frame of reference, chapter 1 contains a description of the methodology, its rationale, and the assumptions on which it rests. The chapter also contains an introduction to the use of the methodology as a vehicle for the formative and summative evaluation of teachers' abilities to link their work to goals for learning, the context in which teaching and learning occur, and where a pupil stands with respect to these goals. The closing section of chapter 1 places TWS in the context of other ongoing efforts to improve the quality of teachers and teaching in the nation's schools, such as the work of the National Commission on Teaching & America's Future and of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.

Chapter 2 extends the discussion initiated in chapter 1 to the contribution of the methodology to the preparation of teachers who are to work in standards-based schools. Chapter 2 argues that the shift under way in 49 of 50 states from a norm-referenced to a standards-referenced orientation to schooling represents a paradigm shift in education of massive proportions—and that this shift fundamentally redefines the nature of teaching and learning in the nation's classrooms as it has been practiced throughout most of the 20th century. The assumption underlying the chapter is that teacher preparation and licensing in the 49 states engaged in this shift need to change accordingly.

Chapter 3 focuses on the measurement side of teacher work sampling and the role of data collection in both the instructional and evaluative uses of the methodology. As such, chapter 3 considers how learning gains made by pupils are a focus of both formative and summative evaluation. When prospective teachers at Western Oregon University prepare a work sample, they produce a number of products around a 2- to 5-week unit of instruction as the sample of work to be examined. The products and processes evaluated through the teacher work sample include the following elements:

- A description of the teaching and learning outcomes to be accomplished
- A description of the context in which teaching and learning occur
- Instructional plans
- The creation of a classroom environment conducive to learning
- The delivery of instruction and the assessment of pupils' progress in learning
- The quality of the pre- and postinstructional assessments developed and used to measure pupils' progress in learning
- Evidence of pupils' learning gains
- The interpretation of and reflection on the success of the teaching/learning unit, including progress made by pupils in their learning and its implications for the teacher's future practice and professional development

Rating scales (rubrics) have been developed for scoring each of these products and processes, and information derived through these scales is used for formative or summative evaluation. The details of these measures and their use is a central focus of the chapter.

Chapter 4 portrays what we at Western Oregon believe to be the core concepts of TWSM. Comparing the focus of teacher preparation instruction before the use of TWSM with what exists now reveals major differences. Those differences we have defined as the added values emanating from the use of TWSM as well as the core concepts of TWSM.

In combination, the first four chapters of the handbook are intended to provide an overview of teacher work sampling as a means of connecting teaching and learning in a way that serves multiple purposes and meets multiple needs in the teacher education community. Guidelines and procedures for using the methodology, illustrative measures to accompany its use, underlying rationale, philosophy, and core concepts are provided.

We believe this information about the methodology and its conceptual underpinnings will enable interested readers to determine the potential utility in their own programs of TWSM and decide whether they wish to learn more about it. In either case, the following chapters provide a frame of reference for thinking about teacher preparation and licensing that will be new to many teacher education faculties.

CHAPTER 1

Connecting Teaching and Learning: An Introduction to Teacher Work Sample Methodology[1]

by H. Del Schalock, Western Oregon University, and
David Myton, Oregon Teacher Standards and Practices Commission

This handbook describes a way to meaningfully connect teaching and learning for purposes of preparing and licensing teachers. It also discusses why making this connection is critical to both the professionalization of teaching and the quality of schooling at this juncture in the history of teacher education. Additionally, it describes the changes that need to occur in the preparation and licensing process when standards for licensure require evidence of learning gains by pupils.

As its name implies, teacher work sampling focuses on a sample of a teacher's work. As we use the term, it also focuses on a sample of pupils' work. What makes the methodology unique is that it provides a way of meaningfully connecting the two samples.

In many ways, teacher work sample methodology (TWSM) resembles what teacher educators typically require of student teachers as they assume full responsibility for a classroom. In a preparation program based on teacher work sampling, a candidate is to prepare a plan of instruction that includes a description of the learning outcomes children are expected to accomplish, the classroom organization and learning activities that are to lead to these outcomes, and the means by which pupils' learning will be assessed to determine whether the outcomes intended have in fact been accomplished. Supervisors then evaluate the plan and its execution. Feedback to a candidate is provided on the basis of observations and evaluations made. Following the implementation of the teacher work sample (TWS), candidates also are asked to reflect on their student teaching experiences from the perspective of what went right and what went wrong, what could or should have been done differently, and perceived strengths and weaknesses of themselves as novice teachers.

Teacher preparation programs that include work sampling have many of the commonly held features of all teacher preparation and licensing systems. Teacher work sampling, however, does bring about several features not typically found in preparation programs and defines others in slightly different ways. As the methodology has evolved in Oregon, it currently consists of seven core, interrelated elements (see Table 1.1) that constitute the foundation on which the methodology rests. A 2- to 5-week unit of instruction represents the length and scope of teacher work to be sampled in Oregon for purposes of initial licensure.[2]

It is important to note within the context of these core features of the methodology that specifics are free to vary. Each teacher preparation institution using teacher work sampling procedures will give its own footprint to the methodology, depending on, for example, the model of schooling a particular preparation program is to reflect, state or local preference for kind and level of learning outcomes pupils are to pursue, and choice of assessment strategies to employ. This means in effect that within the broad policy constraints set by a state licensing agency or by a regional or national accrediting body, a teacher preparation institution is free to bring its own preferences to the specifics of teacher and pupil performance assessed through teacher work sampling procedures. Beyond the seven interrelated nonnegotiable features that give it definition, teacher work sampling is not a predefined, precrafted methodology.

Table 1.1. Central Elements in Oregon's Approach to Teacher Work Sampling

Elements	Specifications
Sample of work	The sample of teacher and pupil work studied must be of sufficient length and scope to permit the assessment of multiple dimensions of a teacher's work and to make the learning outcomes pupils are to accomplish of genuine importance to their long-term progress in learning.
Targets for learning	The learning outcomes to be accomplished by pupils are to be carefully delineated and are to vary in complexity and kind, for example, concept acquisition and the solution of multistep problems.
Measures of learning	Key learning outcomes are to be accompanied by a description of the pre- and postinstructional measures to be used in assessing the progress pupils make in working toward their accomplishments; instructional planning is to reflect findings from preinstructional assessment.
Descriptors of process	Information is to be collected and reported on the conditions and processes of instruction provided by a teacher during the course of the work sampled.
Descriptors of context	Information is to be collected and reported on the classroom, school, and community contexts in which teaching and learning occur.
Analyses of learning gains	The learning gains made by pupils as a consequence of instruction are to be provided on a pupil-by-pupil basis and summarized for selected groups of children, for example, pupils starting the unit with little versus a great deal of related knowledge, or pupils who have English as a second language versus those who do not.
Reflection and next steps	Candidates are to provide a reflective analysis of their teaching and accomplishments with pupils in light of the information reported in the sample of work as a whole and identify their need for continued professional development.

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The purpose of this handbook is to describe successful teacher work sample implementation strategies that have been developed at Western Oregon University (*Western* or *Western Oregon* in the text). It is hoped that readers who are considering employing the methodology will find the ideas in this handbook encouraging. We describe both the processes and products involved and the decisions they inform, illustrate the kind of policy and program changes needed when evidence of pupil learning is to be connected to teaching as a condition of licensing, and discuss the confidence that can be placed in such information when it is obtained through the teacher work sampling system currently employed at Western. Because Oregon, like most other states in the nation, is deeply engaged in the transition to a standards-based design for its K-16 educational system, our discussions throughout the handbook incorporate the implications of this transformation in education for the preparation and licensing of teachers. We do so primarily through the lens of its implications for the content and design of teacher work sampling procedures, but in chapter 2 we address teacher work sampling and standards-based schools more thoroughly.

Most important, however, the handbook provides instructional resources and guidelines for teacher education faculties who wish to add evidence of a teacher's impact on pupils' learning to licensing decisions. After more than a decade of experience with teacher work samples, and having completed the redesign of its teacher preparation programs to reflect the demands of the state's standards-based design for schooling, Western Oregon faculty are in a good position to share with others what they have learned about helping teachers systematically and meaningfully connect their teaching to a pupil's progress toward high and explicit expectations for learning. The faculty have found that there is much to share in this regard. A central perception they will share is the necessity for cohesion and coherence within a teacher preparation program to make the teaching-learning connection functional.

A distinctive feature of the handbook is its placement of the specifics of TWSM simultaneously within a state and national *policy* context and within a *research, development, and evaluation* context. As a lead institution in teacher work sample design, Western Oregon has assumed the stance of a center for research and development. As such, it has engaged from the outset in the systematic evaluation and refinement of the methodology. Western also has viewed teacher work sampling as a methodology for research on teaching and teacher education and currently has a database involving more than 1,000 student teachers and the learning gains made by more than 20,000 pupils they have taught. These dimensions of our work are alluded to only briefly in the handbook, but we believe it is important that teacher educators understand that having a way to meaningfully connect teaching and learning for purposes of licensure provides a powerful vehicle for research and evaluation in teacher education that heretofore has been lacking. A brief description of the evolution of the methodology and its conceptual underpinnings is provided in Appendix A.

HOW TEACHER WORK SAMPLING CONNECTS TEACHING AND LEARNING

When used for purposes of teacher preparation and licensing, the specifics of TWSs vary by level of license pursued. When used for an initial license to teach in Oregon, teaching and learning are connected through 2- to 5-week units of instruction. When used for an advanced (continuing) license, a longer period of instruction is sampled (for example, a term or semester), and more than one subject area is included in the sample. Regardless of the license sought, however, detailed information about the context in which teaching and learning occur (classroom, school, district, or community) and the characteristics of pupils taught (number of children on individualized education plans [IEPs], number who speak English as a second language, etc.) is collected and merged with information about plans for instruction, learning outcomes pursued, assessment procedures used, related progress in learning made by pupils, and reflections on effectiveness as a teacher. In this respect, teacher work sampling can be thought of as *an unusually complex applied performance assessment system that is embedded in a teacher's daily work* (Hambleton, 1996; H. D. Schalock, Schalock, & Girod, 1997). As such, it carries high face and content validity and is seen as meaningful by both prospective teachers and teacher education faculties.

At root, a TWS connects teaching and learning through an informed interweaving of the seven interrelated core features that define the methodology. It is accomplished through combining and blending an interdependent set of processes, products, results, and reflections. When viewed in this way, it becomes apparent that the knowledge and skills a prospective teacher needs to successfully perform the various tasks called for by the methodology require an extended, coherent, and cohesive background of study before and in conjunction with its use.

Processes

Any institution planning to use a version of teacher work sampling in its preparation programs needs to face the fact that a TWS is not easily designed and implemented or simply documented. Preparing a TWS requires a large body of "enabling" knowledge and skills on the part of a prospective teacher and a great deal of time on the part of faculty as instructors and supervisors. *Initial efforts on the part of teacher candidates to prepare a TWS should be viewed primarily as a learning experience. As such, the first TWS should be accompanied by formative rather than summative evaluation.*

Depending on the structure of the preparation program in which a prospective teacher is enrolled (a 4-year undergraduate program, a 5-year program following completion of a baccalaureate degree, a 5- or 6-year program ending in a master's degree), the preparation of an initial TWS may precede the formal student teaching experience or be a part of it. In either case, a minimum of 5 to 8 weeks of intensive effort on the part of a prospective teacher is needed to design, have reviewed and approved, implement, have evaluated, and then document the initial TWS. Both a college supervisor and the teacher in whose classroom a student is working need to review, approve, supervise, evaluate, and provide whatever technical assistance and feedback is needed for a candidate to complete this first experience with reasonable success and learn enough from it to pursue a second TWS with relative independence.

Within this context, an initial TWS typically is viewed as a *gatekeeper* to a candidate's student teaching experience. Unless performance around an initial TWS is judged to be adequate by both a college and a school supervisor, a second "enabling" TWS should be considered before permitting a prospective teacher to engage in full-time student teaching. Work samples developed by teacher candidates at Western (which include the record of teaching performance evaluations) are presented in written form and are reviewed and evaluated collectively by at least two members of a candidate's instructional team.

As TWSM is used at Western for either formative or summative purposes, a prospective teacher engages in 10 distinct tasks (Table 1.2), which represent Western's interweaving of the core elements of the methodology into a complex whole.

Table 1.2 also lists the focus of assessment accompanying each task (performance measure) and who is to assess the student. The 10 tasks are elaborated in the following pages and dealt with more fully in chapter 2. Details about the product or process scales developed to assess each task and the roles of college and classroom supervisors in relation to each task are provided in chapter 3.

Products

As indicated in Table 1.2, separate products come from 9 of the 10 tasks involved in the teacher work sampling process as it is employed at Western. (Assessment of the student's implementation or teaching of the TWS unit is a performance, not a product.) They are divided into pre- and postinstructional products.

Preinstructional products include the following elements:

- Unit of study overview (from task 1)
- Description of the classroom, school, and community (from task 2)
- Learning outcomes to be accomplished (from task 3)
- Pre- and postinstructional measures of the learning outcomes desired (from tasks 4 and 5)
- A contextually adapted instructional plan (from task 6)

Postinstructional products include those that focus on *results:*

- Learning gains and accomplishments (from tasks 8 and 9)
- Learning analyses and interpretations (from task 9)

Table 1.2. Tasks Involved in Western Oregon University's Use of Teacher Work Sampling

Tasks	Supervisors Involved	Performance measures
1. Describe the unit of study to be sampled and the curriculum context in which it rests.	College and school	Product scale
2. Map the classroom and school context in which the sample of teaching and learning is to be taken, giving particular attention to the number and characteristics of pupils for whom one is responsible.	School	Teaching/learning context map and ratio of classroom demand/support
3. Given (1) and (2), identify the learning outcomes one's pupils are to accomplish through the unit of study.	College and school	Product scale
4. Given (1) through (3), develop the measures to be used in assessing the accomplishment of these outcomes.	College and school	Product scale
5. Administer a preinstruction version of these measures to determine where pupils are with respect to what they are expected to learn.	College and school	*Process* and product scale
6. Using information obtained through all of the above, prepare an instruction/management/assessment plan for helping *all* pupils reach the learning outcomes desired.	College and school	Product scale
7. Implement this contextually adapted instructional plan, with supervisors' attention directed to classroom management; the alignment and integration of curriculum, instruction, and assessment; the appropriate use of "best teaching practices"; mastery of subject matter taught; and demonstration of interpersonal sensitivity and professionalism.	College and school	Related *process* scales
8. Assess the postinstructional accomplishment of pupils and calculate the *growth* in learning achieved for each pupil.	College and school	Product scale
9. Summarize, interpret, and report the growth in learning for each pupil in one's class and for selected groups of pupils. Relate the progress made in learning to the context in which teaching and learning occurred.	College and school	Product scale
10. Reflect on what would be done differently if the unit were taught again and what has been learned from the unit about needs for continued professional development as a 1st-year teacher.	College and school	Two product scales

Reflective products include these factors:

- Reflections on the unit of study, changes to make if taught again, and next steps with pupils (from task 10)
- Reflections on one's effectiveness as a facilitator of learning and on the need for continued professional development given all of the above (from task 10)

In Western's approach to teacher work sampling, process and product measures are attended to with equal care. Evaluative criteria have been developed for each process and product assessed, scale scores reflecting these criteria are provided by supervisors, and validation and reliability studies have been carried out on the performance measures derived therefrom (see chapter 3).

Results

From the perspective taken in Oregon, the results obtained as a consequence of teaching are among the most important products generated through the methodology, for they are the ultimate focus of both a professional teacher and teaching as a profession. It is our view (Cowart & Myton, 1997; McConney, Schalock, & Schalock, 1998; H. D. Schalock, Schalock, Cowart, & Myton, 1993; H. D. Schalock et al., 1997) that pupil learning is the professional touchstone for both teachers and teacher educators. The professional status of either will grow only when teachers are demonstrably able to nurture the kind and level of learning in children deemed essential at a particular point. TWSM, with its emphasis on the consequences and results of teaching, has been designed as a vehicle to assure the effectiveness of teachers *as facilitators of learning*. As such, teacher work sampling also is intended to serve as a vehicle to enhance the professionalization of teachers, teaching, and teacher education.

As outlined in Table 1.2 (tasks 5, 8, and 9), teacher work sampling highlights learning gains made by pupils in relation to outcomes desired from a unit of instruction. In this context, TWS measures devised by the student are used to assess learning before and after instruction. The measures are subject to review and approval of supervisors to be sure that they are appropriately aligned with the learning outcome(s) being pursued and are of defensible quality. A candidate's descriptions of classroom, school, and community context also are reviewed and approved by supervisors to be sure they capture these dimensions of context accurately and in sufficient detail to be used for interpretive purposes.

Through these means, teacher work sampling assesses the effectiveness of teachers close to their work. Teachers also view this type of assessment as meaningful and useful for planning their work and for reflecting the realities of the context in which they are teaching and the knowledge and skills their pupils are learning. It is these features of Western's design for teacher work sampling that permit it to be viewed as an authentic, applied performance assessment system for teachers working in learning-centered schools.

Particularly useful features of the methodology are the pupil-by-pupil analysis of learning gain that is called for (task 8) and the subsequent analysis of gains by selected groups of children in a classroom (task 9). The latter analysis often takes the form of a separate analysis for high- and low-scoring pupils on the preinstructional measure(s) of the learning outcome(s) desired or for other instructionally important groupings, such as Title I and English as a Second Language (ESL) pupils. These second-order analyses of results are especially important to beginning teachers, because they bring into bold relief how effective they actually are as facilitators of learning and toward whom in their class they are directing their energies. It is not at all uncommon to find beginning teachers who are particularly attentive to low- or high-performing pupils or who target their instruction to the midrange pupil and assume that in so doing all children will be reasonably well served. Evidence is mounting that either pattern of teaching represents a dangerous course to pursue (Sanders & Horn, 1998; H. D. Schalock et al., 1993; M. Schalock, 1987) and there is no better way for novice teachers to confront this reality than to see it in the results of their own teaching.

Reflections

Following immediately upon a candidate's analysis of results and growing from his or her summary and interpretation of the learning gain data (task 9), prospective teachers at Western are asked to reflect on two additional dimensions of their work (task 10). The first centers on the unit taught, with particular attention to how it could be improved if taught again. The second centers on the candidate's own sense of professional development and abilities. Reflecting on one's performance in relation to the accomplishments of one's pupils is a powerful impetus to both self-evaluation and planning for improvement. These reflections can lead to the design of a plan for continued professional development that newly licensed teachers might carry with them to their first teaching position.

From the perspective of teacher candidates, these reflective tasks typically are viewed as the most beneficial of the many tasks pursued in the TWS experience. They bring closure to an unusually demanding phase in a candidate's development as a professional, they highlight personal strengths and weaknesses against the hard realities of pupils' progress in learning, and they serve as a bridge to next steps in career development. In our view, however, it is not the act of reflection itself that gives it value as a foundation for continued professional development. Teacher work sampling permits a novice to reflect on *all* that goes into being a professional teacher and to have meaningful evidence at hand as to how effective one actually is in accomplishing one's aims as a teacher. Without anchoring reflection about teaching to the realities of pupils' learning and to the context in which teaching and learning occur, reflection runs the risk of being a relatively empty exercise.

TEACHER WORK SAMPLE APPLICATIONS IN THE INITIAL PREPARATION AND LICENSING OF TEACHERS

Teacher work sampling, when employed in the initial preparation and licensing of teachers, has five interdependent but distinctly different uses:

- *A model* for thinking about teaching and learning
- *A frame of reference* for designing and operating teacher preparation programs that systematically connect teaching and learning

- *A vehicle for practicing and obtaining feedback* on one's effectiveness as a teacher in fostering pupils' progress in learning (formative evaluation)
- *A methodology for demonstrating and documenting* one's effectiveness in fostering learning gains by pupils (summative evaluation)
- *A source of evidence to be used in recommending and granting* a license to teach

Each application is discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

A Model for Thinking About Teaching and Learning

The first purpose served by TWSM is to help teachers preparing for entry to the profession *to learn to think professionally about teaching*. At one level, it is simply a matter of insisting that thinking about teaching start with thinking about learning. It also is a matter of insisting that thinking about effective teaching start with knowing how much learning has occurred as a consequence of teaching, and whether what has occurred meets the standards for learning desired.

Within this frame of reference, issues of classroom management, instructional planning, teaching methods, assessment strategies, mastery of content to be taught, and all other enablers of learning that go into accomplished teaching are viewed as means rather than ends. Prospective teachers are helped to understand through their preparation for developing TWSs that *learning* is the bouncing ball to watch as a professional teacher. They also need to acquire the view that the task of a teacher is to continuously align and realign the pieces and parts of one's instruction with the learning outcome(s) expected of one's pupils, the varying learning needs of children as they progress toward these outcomes, and the demands and supports of the context in which teaching and learning occur.

This emphasis on thinking like a professional teacher in the methodology places high priority on knowledge and skill in assessment, a capacity to align assessment with learning outcomes desired, and a capacity to use assessment information to guide instruction and provide helpful feedback to children on their progress in learning. Because of these demands of the methodology, the concept of integrating curriculum, instruction, and assessment has emerged as a central feature in its implementation.

This outcome-based and context-dependent orientation to teaching is fostered by a series of guiding questions that govern preparation of a prospective teacher and in turn govern the preparation of a TWS:

- What are the learning goals I want my pupils to accomplish through this unit of work and why?
- What activities and instructional procedures are appropriate and necessary for *these* pupils in *this* classroom to achieve *these* learning goals?
- What resources and how much time do I need to implement these activities?

- What assessment activities are appropriate for these pupils and these goals in this context when using these instructional procedures?
- How successful was I at helping my pupils achieve the learning goals desired?
- What went right? What went wrong? Why?

Within this frame of reference, textbook coverage, curriculum-defined assignments, and favorite learning activities are not the point of departure in planning instruction by professional teachers.

A Frame of Reference for Program Design and Operation

To prepare teachers to respond nimbly and appropriately to the interactions among these guiding questions, teacher preparation programs must be structured and operated far differently from those in the past. Programs designed around courses that deal separately with the various bodies of knowledge and skills teachers need to function effectively as professionals in a classroom will not suffice. Knowledge about human development and learning, content of a discipline, instructional methods and procedures, assessment strategies, data analysis and reporting, the social foundations of education, instructional planning, and classroom management by themselves, with little or no attention to how they need to be aligned and integrated, will not go far in helping a preservice teacher answer the focal questions outlined above. To prepare teacher candidates to think and act like professional teachers requires a great deal of attention to issues of knowledge alignment and integration as well as to knowledge acquisition. Preparation programs need to be structured and operated accordingly.

A Vehicle for Practicing and Obtaining Feedback on One's Performance as a Professional Teacher

Beyond helping prospective teachers learn to think professionally about their craft, TWSs serve as vehicles for practicing and obtaining feedback on one's effectiveness as a professional teacher. In this handbook, *teacher effectiveness* is defined as one's ability to integrate curriculum, instruction, and assessment in such a way as to foster the learning outcomes desired in pupils taught. At this juncture, TWSM as an applied performance instructional and assessment system comes into play. Reasonably strict (in terms of sequence) guidelines for TWS preparation, implementation, and evaluation need to be followed. Incorporating this formative function of teacher work sampling into the structure and operation of a teacher preparation program is essential if prospective teachers are to internalize and polish the intellectual and performance demands of systematically connecting teaching and learning.

Balancing the formative and summative functions of TWSM, however, is not easy. Designing, carrying out, and reporting on a 2- to 5-week unit of study is a complex and demanding task. Even if a teacher candidate has the enabling knowledge and skills needed to do so, it still takes a great deal of practice and guidance to put a work sample together in a way that a teacher education faculty and a state's licensing agency deem acceptable. This is why two formally prepared and reported teacher work samples, each consisting of a 2- to 5-week unit of study, are required for initial licensure in Oregon. A TWS is required for each level of Oregon teaching authorization being pursued (early childhood, elementary, middle, secondary) and in two different subject areas for middle and secondary. The two TWSs in combination are then used to assess a range of teaching proficiencies.

The requirement of two TWSs for initial licensing makes time spent in student teaching another complicating factor. Teacher work sampling requires full responsibility teaching with enough lead time in a school and classroom for a student teacher to get to know the children who are learning and the context in which teaching is to occur. In Oregon, only 15 weeks of full-time student teaching is required as a condition of licensure, and fitting both TWSs within this time frame can be extremely difficult. Most teacher preparation institutions in the state have solved this dilemma by arranging pre-student teaching practicum experiences that resemble the conditions of student teaching in essentially all particulars. This arrangement, however, requires directing extensive supervision and formative evaluation in this context to all aspects of TWS performance. Without exception, however, the first TWS is viewed as preparatory for the second, even though it may also serve summative evaluation purposes in relation to a second choice as to licensing authorization. The second TWS is viewed as serving essentially summative rather than formative purposes and is typically directed to a candidate's first choice of licensing authorization.[3]

A Methodology for Documenting and Demonstrating One's Effectiveness as a Professional Teacher

In addition to serving as a vehicle for learning how to systematically connect teaching and learning, TWSM provides a means whereby prospective teachers can demonstrate their proficiency in doing so. The sample of work used for this purpose is not large (a unit of study) and does not extend over a long period of time (2 to 5 weeks) or across all subjects taught, but it is fully authentic from the perspective of a professional teacher's work. It also is an unusually demanding performance task for prospective teachers when compared with performance requirements new teachers typically face for licensing in most states. From the perspective of quality assurance in the licensing of teachers, teacher work sampling represents a major step forward (McConney, et al., 1998; H. D. Schalock, 1987; M. Schalock, 1987; H. D. Schalock, Schalock, & Myton, 1998).

As indicated previously, the second TWS prepared by a teacher candidate for purposes of initial licensure in Oregon is viewed as the vehicle for demonstrating and documenting effectiveness in connecting teaching and learning. Particular attention is given to demonstrating and documenting effectiveness in fostering learning gains by pupils. The first TWS prepared by a candidate serves multiple purposes, but a primary purpose is to determine whether the teacher candidate is ready to prepare the second work sample with a high level of quality and little need of assistance. With the exception of this difference in purpose, most features of the two TWSs are the same, though they are usually organized around different units of instruction and implemented with a different set of pupils in a different school. The major difference in the two is in the amount of assistance provided in preparing, carrying out, and reporting the work sample experience. A second difference, of course, is the expectation accompanying TWS performance. An adequate performance in TWS 1 is usually treated as a gatekeeper to full-time student teaching, and adequate performance is always required to proceed with TWS 2; an adequate performance in TWS 2 is needed to obtain a license to teach.

Differences in these various dimensions, however, are not absolute. Candidates are still closely supervised in TWS 2 by both college and school supervisors, and the level of performance demanded on the various work sample tasks—including level and pattern of pupil learning to be accomplished—is left to the preparing institutions. Oregon's teacher licensing agency treats both movement from TWS 1 to TWS 2 and level of success in fostering learning gains by pupils as clinical judgments to be made by professional teacher education faculties. As such, clear guidelines for either decision do not exist. Even so, there is general cross-institutional agreement that TWS 2 is to be prepared with as much independence on the part of a candidate as the welfare of the pupils being taught permits (the master's thesis analogy). Expectations for learning gains on TWS 2 are high but realistic in terms of the kind of learning outcome(s) being pursued, the length of time candidates have to get to know their pupils, and the overall context in which teaching and learning occur. Context is never to be used as an excuse for a candidate's weak performance with respect to his or her pupils' progress in learning. It is to be used by candidates to help others understand why that progress is as it is.

A Source of Evidence to be Used in Recommending and Granting a License to Teach

While teacher work sampling provides multiple lines of evidence that bear on a licensing decision, additional lines of evidence clearly need to inform an institution's recommendation of a candidate for licensure. TWSs provide limited evidence, for example, of content mastery and knowledge of human development and learning. Writing and speaking skills required of professional teachers, as well as interpersonal skills, need to be assessed in a variety of contexts and under a variety of conditions beyond those provided in TWSs if a license to teach is to be recommended with confidence. A *profile of sufficient evidence* needs to be assembled and acted upon for purposes of a licensing decision, with evidence from a TWS being considered only as part of and side by side with other kinds and sources of evidence. The form this profile of evidence takes in Western's proficiency-based teacher education program is described for illustrative purposes in chapter 2.

Adaptations for Standards-Based Teaching and Learning

The tasks that have been outlined thus far as constituting teacher work sampling and the processes and products that accompany them translate directly into the preparation of teachers to work in standards-based schools. As outlined thus far, however, they are not by themselves sufficient. Standards-based teaching and learning differ appreciably from the teaching and learning currently found in most classrooms in the United States, and if these differences are to be addressed, a number of adjustments in the design of TWSs are needed. For purposes of initial licensing where teacher work to be sampled is limited by the conditions of student teaching to reasonably short (2- to 5-week) units of study, the adjustments needed in TWS procedures to accommodate the demands of standards-based teaching and learning are relatively minor. For example, tasks 3, 8, and 9 from Table 1.2 would be modified as follows:

> Task 3. Identify the learning outcomes one's pupils are to accomplish through the unit of study *and the performance standards defining outcome attainment.*
>
> Task 8. Assess the postinstructional accomplishments of pupils and calculate the growth in learning achieved for each pupil, *and assess whether the performance standards established for each outcome were or were not achieved.*
>
> Task 9. Summarize, interpret, and report the growth in learning *achieved and the performance standards accomplished* for each pupil in one's class and for selected groups of pupils.

In practical terms, these additions do not add greatly to the time or energy required by a candidate and by his or her supervisors to prepare or evaluate a TWS. In conceptual and procedural terms, however, they add enormously to the complexity of the instructional tasks facing a candidate and the complexity of both curricular and instructional/supervisory tasks facing a teacher education faculty. The added complexities that standards-based teaching and learning bring to the preparation and licensing of teachers are a central focus of chapter 2.

Teacher Work Sample Applications in Advanced Licensing

Recommending a candidate for an initial license to teach is a far different decision from recommending him or her for an advanced or continuing license. An initial license is quite straightforward in that it simply acknowledges the likelihood the preservice teacher will be successful in helping pupils learn. The evidence on which such a decision (prediction) is made is necessarily limited, even in preparation and licensing programs requiring TWSs. In effect, it is a best guess. The better and more extensive the information available to inform a decision to recommend for licensing, of course, the better the prediction should be. Beginning teacher support and assistance systems, as well as beginning teacher evaluation procedures, are designed to protect both teachers and children when these initial predictions are in error.

Granting an advanced or continuing license to teach is a different matter. Time and context permit more and better information to be collected for use in making this level of decision. More important, long-range implications ride heavily on such a decision, for tenure almost always accompanies the award of an advanced or continuing license to teach. As such, advanced licensing decisions are in many ways more critical than those that permit new teachers to enter the profession, for they involve commitment to a lifetime of influence on the learning and well-being of young people in a community.

For these various reasons, the application of teacher work sampling procedures in the arena of advanced licensing needs to vary in two important ways from its preservice applications:

- The sample of teacher work needs to be longer and larger than a 2- to 5-week unit of study—for example, a term or semester of work across two or more courses or subject areas.
- Clearly defined standards need to be established for the kind and amount of learning pupils are to accomplish within the expanded sample of work.

These are large and important differences in the design of the methodology, and their rationale and implications need to be understood. The added complexities of standards-based schooling in TWS design also come to the fore in the application of the methodology to advanced licensing decisions, for the sampling of teacher work is of a sufficiently long duration that the progress of pupils toward the standards for learning they are to achieve needs to be tracked.

Three lines of reasoning converge to make the sample of work taken for purposes of advanced licensing longer and larger. First, the public should demand evidence of a teacher's impact on learning over an extended period of time across a reasonable sample of courses or subject areas taught before full professional status is recognized. Second, advanced licensing always requires evidence of "successful" job performance over an extended period of time. Candidates at this level have access to pupils necessary to demonstrate a more demanding and extensive impact on learning. Third, candidates for advanced licensure are expected to be functioning as "experienced" teachers with their own pupils. In contrast to a student teacher, they should know their children well and be in full command of their teaching environment. This set of conditions is very different from those accompanying a student teacher's first opportunity to manage a classroom under cautiously extended conditions of independence.

Two accompanying lines of reasoning converge for articulating clear and demanding standards for learning gains by pupils when considering the award of an advanced license to teach. First, parents, and the public in general, are entitled to know that teachers recognized as fully warranted professionals can and do foster the kind and level of learning desired for pupils enlisted in their care. Second, a scaled-up version of teacher work sampling is capable of providing such evidence. This is not to say that establishing standards for pupils' learning will be easy, or that such standards should be set without public discussion or in absence of related research. It is to say that this is a task that needs to be done and that every state should get on with it (see H. D. Schalock et al., 1997, pp. 25-26, for additional discussion of increasing learning gain standards). In many ways, it is parallel to the task states have faced in establishing standards for pupil learning in the public schools. We now know how long this takes and the tortuous turns it can encounter. Nothing less should be expected in defining pupil learning standards for professional teaching. The teacher education community should proceed accordingly.

Several other conditions surround advanced licensing, in contrast to initial licensing, that need to be taken into account when considering TWS applications. From the relatively limited experience we have had to date in crafting such applications, five attending conditions appear to be of considerable importance. In deciding whether work sampling is appropriate for their specific setting, readers will need to decide whether it would be feasible to help teachers account for all five conditions.

1. *The demands on a teacher's time.* It can be argued that these will not be great, particularly if the TWS is streamlined to accommodate the circumstances of full-time teaching and if the work samples prepared represent the kind of documentation that needs to be made of one's work on a regular basis. The formality of work sampling does demand a teacher's time and attention, however, which tend to be in short supply during the course of a school year.
2. *The support and assistance provided teachers in their school context.* It can be argued that it is clearly to a school or district's advantage to support teachers in their pursuit of an advanced license to teach, much as is commonly done for National Board certification. If the district holds a different view about such matters, however, teachers will find the documentation that is needed in TWS preparation difficult to manage.
3. *The connection to a school's regular and ongoing teacher evaluation system.* It can be argued that the evaluative function of teacher work sampling for advanced licensing should remain apart from and be independent of a school's ongoing evaluation system. Although this may be possible to do, it is likely that both teachers and administrators will view license-related TWSs as available and important evidence to lay on the table in reaching decisions about the conditions of continued employment.
4. *The connection to restructuring or improvement efforts in one's school or district.* A formally established connection between license-related TWSs and efforts to improve the functioning of one's school or district is not necessary, but such a connection *can* be made if the school changes desired clearly influence the nature of teaching or learning.
5. *The connection to a teacher's planning for continued professional development.* The connection of license-related TWSs to continued professional development planning is obvious, and probably inescapable, but the specifics of how information generated through work samples is to link to school-ap-

> proved plans for continued professional development are not so obvious—particularly if a high-priority school improvement project is under way in one's school or district. Linking continued professional development activities and requirements to advanced licensing requirements through TWS should be doable. Making these connections probably will need to be negotiated within each school or district context.

None of these conditions would seem to prohibit the use of TWSs for advanced licensing, but they do signal a set of subtle (and not so subtle) contextual factors that need to be planned for by states, local districts, and individual teachers for the methodology to be used effectively for this purpose. The core elements remain the same, and the 10 related tasks outlined in Table 1.2 appear to be as appropriate to an inservice as they are to a preservice context. The TWS needs to be longer and larger, of course. Standards for learning gains by pupils need to be set and met. But the essential structure and operation of the methodology appears to represent professional teaching for experienced as well as novice teachers.

It is important to emphasize that adaptations in how work samples are obtained and used for purposes of advanced licensing vary from state to state. In Oregon, for example, where experience at this level of use has occurred in only two pilot studies, on-site interviews, two targeted 15-minute videotapes (one highlighting classroom management and the other instruction), and a "portfolio" for record keeping and display have been added as data collection and display strategies. In Louisiana, the only other state at the time of this writing to systematically pilot TWS procedures, a structured interview has been adopted to facilitate data collection and organization.[4] Both the Oregon and the Louisiana pilots include structured classroom observations for information pertaining to task 7 in Table 1.2, while parallel information is provided in this regard for initial licensing by a candidate's college and school supervisors.

This brief description of TWS applications to advanced licensing confirms again that the knowledge and skills teachers need to secure TWSs are unusually demanding. An extended, cohesive, and coherent background of study is needed to develop them. These programs are only now being designed in Oregon, as new standards for advanced (continuing) licenses will not take effect until 2002. It is clear already, however, that the design of programs to support this more demanding level of licensure is taking the state's teacher education community into uncharted waters (see Figure 1.1 for a list of the proficiencies to be demonstrated to receive an advanced license to teach in Oregon), as nearly all the proficiencies to be demonstrated focus in one way or another on K-12 pupil progress in learning.[5]

Figure 1.1. Proficiencies To Be Demonstrated by Teachers in Oregon for an Advanced (Continuing) License to Teach

Proficiencies that extend those required for an initial license to teach:

1. Candidates assess knowledge and skills of pupils in relation to long-term content goals and district standards and determine the knowledge and skills each pupil needs to accomplish them.
2. Candidates design instructional plans that incorporate knowledge of pupils' developmental levels, interests, abilities, and learning accomplishments consistent with content goals and district standards.
3. Candidates establish a classroom climate conducive to learning, e.g., positive classroom management, a safe and developmentally appropriate environment, efficient organization of time and materials, and effective transitions.
4. Candidates implement instructional plans that employ knowledge of subject matter and use research-based educational practices that reflect how children learn, are sensitive to individual differences and diverse cultures, and encourage parent participation.
5. Candidates evaluate pupils' progress in learning, refine plans for instruction, and establish alternative goals or environments for learning when necessary.
6. Candidates document and report the progress of pupils in achieving content goals and district standards.

Proficiencies that go beyond those required for an initial license and are embedded in one's current teaching position:

7. Candidates collaborate with parents, colleagues, and members of the community to provide internal and external assistance to pupils and to their families, if needed, to promote learning.
8. Candidates use emerging research on teaching, learning, and school improvement to enhance practices.
9. Candidates participate in designing, evaluating, and improving opportunities for teaching and learning in an educational institution.
10. Candidates collaborate with colleagues to enhance job performance and advance teaching as a profession.

PLACING TEACHER WORK SAMPLES IN THE CONTEXT OF OTHER EFFORTS TO IMPROVE THE QUALITY OF TEACHERS AND TEACHING IN THE NATION'S SCHOOLS

By and large, current teacher preparation programs and licensing criteria around the nation focus on what teachers know and are able to do rather than on what they are able to accomplish. Students of teaching are expected to master the subject areas they are to teach, to become proficient in the skills of teaching, and to demonstrate their ability to translate knowledge and skill into teaching practices that engage a classroom of pupils in what appears to be productive learning activities. Only rarely, however, are measures taken of how productive these learning activities actually are, that is, of the extent to which they nurture learning gains by pupils.

Rather than focusing on what a prospective teacher is able to accomplish with pupils and is subsequently hired to accomplish, most licensing agencies focus on a candidate's courses, credit hours, grade point average, and test scores purportedly demonstrating minimal competence in the basic skills or content to be taught. Some states, such as Florida, Louisiana, and Georgia, also required for many years the demonstration of specific teaching skills for an initial license to teach. These are not widely spread requirements, however, and on the basis of growing empirical evidence concerning the relationship between specific teaching behaviors and pupils' learning, they are increasingly difficult to defend.

Two faces recently have been put on this current state of affairs that give focus to the inadequacy of teachers' knowledge and skill as a foundation for teaching as a profession. The harshest is one portrayed by the immediate past president of the Association for the Education of Teachers in Science:

> Every morning in America an estimated 3.1 million elementary and secondary school teachers go to work in classrooms where 52 million of our nation's best hope for the future are preparing for the jobs and challenges that the 21st century will bring .... The skills, knowledge, attitudes and values forged in these classrooms help to determine graduates' abilities to cope with the future they must face. The skills and knowledge of these classroom teachers should be a matter of national concern. Yet, most state departments of education that issue initial licenses to teachers do it on the basis of (a) a degree or credits from a college or university, (b) a supervised internship, (c) [sometimes] a background check, and (d) any existing license from another state. Only item (b) implies a demonstration of skills and competencies for teaching by the candidate for a license.
>
> Virtually every other profession from medicine and engineering to hair care requires that candidates for an initial license demonstrate minimal skills and knowledge considered to be essential prerequisites. Only in the field of education do we talk seriously about granting a license to those whose only classroom qualifications are a college degree and the absence of a criminal record. Is it any wonder that many think of teachers as lacking professional qualifications for their careers? Is it any wonder that we fail to pay and support teachers with the necessary infrastructure to [ensure] that they perform well?
> (Baird, 1998, p. 1)

A less harsh portrayal, but one that has caught the imagination of the education policy community throughout the nation, is the one sketched by the National Commission on Teaching & America's Future (1996). The report describes in great detail both the plight of our present teaching workforce and the inescapable necessity of strengthening it if we are serious about *all* children in our schools reaching the high expectations for learning that states are beginning to put in place. The aim of the commission

> … was to strengthen teaching and teacher education, and it offered a set of recommendations for ways of accomplishing the goal of having a "competent, caring and knowledgeable teacher in every classroom in America by 2006." They included extending programs to 5 years, relying on professional development schools for clinical experiences, using formal induction programs for beginning teachers, requiring teachers to have an academic major, relying on licensure examinations for new teachers and urging experienced teachers to earn certificates of advanced practice. Those recommendations have served as the focus of legislative proposals and government actions and caused business and labor leaders to enlist in their advocacy and adoption.
>
> The NCTAF Report was premised on a set of research findings that show that "the single most important determinant of what students learn is the expertise of the teacher." It cited a variety of findings that showed that "the strongest predictor of student achievement is the percentage of well-qualified teachers in a school, district, or state—[one must] get people who know what they are doing, and you have to put them where they have an opportunity to know the children well." It defined teacher qualifications as the scores teachers had achieved on licensing examinations, the amount of teaching experience they have, and whether they have advanced degrees in the field they teach, and suggested that the most important investment policy makers can make is to increase funding for teacher education. (Imig, 1998, pp. 1-2)

Support for the "professionalization agenda" advanced by the commission has been extraordinary in the years since the report's release (Imig, 1998, pp. 2-3), but a number of reviews calling into question some of its basic assumptions and interpretations of related literature have appeared recently (Ballou & Podgursky, 1997; Ballou & Soler, 1998; Bennett, Finn, & Ravitch, 1998, as cited by Imig, 1998, p. 4). Following the lead of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) and the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC), the commission called for emphasis on the knowledge, skills, and characteristics of teachers *presumed* to be needed to help pupils reach high standards for learning. In keeping with the orientation of NBPTS and INTASC, little emphasis was given to obtaining evidence that teachers are in fact able to apply their knowledge and skills to foster pupil progress in learning. Nor was a great deal of attention given to the responsibility of teachers to systematically and continuously attend to the impact of their practice on the learning progress of their pupils.

It is this fundamental difference in focus between *what teachers know and are able to do* and *what children learn*, that sets TWSM apart from other efforts to ensure the quality of teachers and teaching in our schools. Teacher work sampling also attends to what teachers know and do, but it is a methodology that emphasizes the *alignment* of these dimensions of teacher work with specific learning outcomes to be accomplished by pupils and the contextual demands of the classroom in which teaching and learning occur. Teacher work sampling represents an applied performance approach to teacher assessment that is close to a teacher's work, in that it reflects the realities of a teacher's work with meaningful indicators of its consequences.

These features of the methodology not only set it apart from other approaches to the assessment of teachers for purposes of preparation and licensure but also make it fully consistent with the demands of a standards orientation to schooling—with its accompanying emphasis on accountability for pupils' progress in learning. In this respect, the methodology represents an embodiment of the coalition of national education agencies and associations' slogan *learning first* and provides a means for translating into practice an increasingly compelling rationale for centering teaching as a profession on pupils' learning (H. D. Schalock et al., 1993).

This difference in focus is one that causes our work to build on as well as stand apart from other mainstream efforts nationally to improve the quality of teachers and teaching in our schools. The nature of the connections made between teaching and learning in Western's approach to teacher work sampling compared with other major assessment systems currently used or being developed for purposes of teacher licensure is summarized in Table 1.3.[6]

PLACING TEACHER WORK SAMPLES IN THE CONTEXT OF ISSUES CURRENTLY CONFRONTING TEACHERS AND TEACHER EDUCATORS NATIONALLY

Chapter 3 outlines the progress Western Oregon has made over the past 5 years in formally validating TWSM as a vehicle for quality assurance in teacher preparation and licensing. In the closing pages of this chapter, we wish to add to the technical information in chapter 3 the broader context in which the validity argument rests. We believe the embeddedness of the methodology in the broader issues confronting the quality of public education in the nation and in the central role of teachers in improving our schools adds appreciably to the full meaning of validity. We also believe the broader responsiveness of the methodology to these issues needs to be fully understood by those considering its adoption for their own teacher preparation and licensing programs. It is our view that efforts to professionalize teachers and teaching have centered far too much in the academy and far too exclusively on teachers, when they should have been focused on schools and the children and families served through them. The following paragraphs are intended to convey how this shift is accomplished through the philosophy and methods of TWSM.

Table 1.3. How TWS, NCATE, INTASC, NBPTS, and TFA* Connect Teaching and Learning

Features	TWS	NCATE	INTASC	NBPTS	TFA
Teacher work sampled	A 2- to 5-week unit of instruction; individual lessons not a primary focus	No specific requirements, but many proposed standards call for evidence of positive effects on student learning	A unit of study of unspecified length; individual lessons are the primary focus	A unit of study of unspecified length; individual lessons are the primary focus	A term of course of study, with student work sampled at the beginning, middle, and end
Attention to context	Classroom, school, and district/community characteristics described in detail	Proposed standards call for teachers' being prepared to teach all students, including children with disabilities	No specific requirements	No specific requirements	All TFA interns teach in inner-city or extreme rural settings
Attention to teacher content knowledge	Treated largely as a prerequisite, though related performance is monitored in the course of supervision	Proposed standards give detailed attention to the scope and depth of knowledge teachers need and its link to intended student learning	Close and detailed attention through prerequisite testing and related performance evaluation	Close and detailed attention through assessment center evaluations and related performance evaluation	Presumed on the basis of program entry standards
Attention to teacher performance processes	Close and detailed attention given through supervision and related performance evaluation; videotapes optional	Proposed standards call for assessment information to be linked to teaching proficiencies to be demonstrated	Close and detailed attention through supervision and related performance evaluation; videotapes required	Close and detailed attention through assessment center evaluations and required videotapes	Close and detailed attention through mentoring and performance evaluation
Attention to teacher products and results	Evaluative scales applied to teacher plans, assessment procedures, and learning gains made by each pupil taking part in the unit of study, as well as selected groups of pupils; reflective essays pertaining to results also obtained and evaluated	Institutions are responsible for designating the specific form of assessment information to be collected, but must provide samples of student work that reflect a teacher candidate's positive effects on student learning	Teaching plans, assessment procedures, and samples of student work for 2 or more students from 2 or more lessons	Teaching plans, assessment procedures, and samples of student work for 3 or more students from 2 or more lessons	Teaching plans, assessment procedures, and samples of student work taken near the beginning, middle, and end of a term or course of study for three students randomly selected by assessors and three selected by the candidate

*	TWS	Teacher Work Sampling
	NCATE	National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education
	INTASC	Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium
	NBPTS	National Board for Professional Teaching Standards
	TFA	Teach for America

The Ethical Imperative

Parents expect and rely on teachers to help their children acquire what is important to be learned in the context in which they are living at a particular point in time. States, and the nation at large, have similar expectations and dependencies. Teachers able to meet these expectations should be recognized and accorded high value. People unable to meet these expectations should not be permitted to teach. The implications of an ineffective teacher on the long-term success of pupils in school, and by inference in life, are too great to condone tolerance of ineffectiveness in practice or weak standards of admission to the profession. TWSM is designed to help protect pupils and parents against ineffective teachers.

The Policy Context

States that have adopted a standards-based design for their schools (currently 49 of 50) are discovering they must have teachers in *all* classrooms who can help *all* children progress in their learning if new standards for learning are to be accomplished. This is a markedly different expectation for both teachers and schools when compared with the textbook-anchored, grade-point-dominated classrooms of the 20th century. In standards-based classrooms, teachers must know how to systematically connect teaching and learning—from planning to monitoring progress in learning to adapting instruction on the basis of progress—and do so in ways that reflect the demands of higher expectations in both kind and level of learning. TWSM is designed to help teachers learn to teach in this manner and to provide evidence of their effectiveness in doing so.

The Accountability Movement

An increasing demand by parents, communities, and policy makers for "accountability" on the part of educators for pupils' learning is part and parcel of the standards movement in education. Some view the adoption of standards for learning and the systematic assessment of pupils' progress toward their accomplishment as the means by which a meaningful educational accountability system can be implemented. Others view the growing interest in accountability more as a by-product of the standards movement than as a moving force behind it. In either case, teacher work sampling is a methodology that reflects the importance and legitimacy of teachers' accountability for pupils' progress in learning and facilitates the implementation of such a view (see M. Schalock, 1998, for an extended discussion).

The Professionalization of Teaching and Teacher Education

As indicated at several points in this chapter, we believe that the professional touchstone for both teachers and teacher educators is pupil learning and that the progress of either as a profession will advance only when teachers are demonstrably able to help children accomplish the learning outcomes desired from schools. The capacity to demonstrate a clear and defensible connection between teaching and learning, or between teacher education and the capacity of teachers to foster learning, has been slow to develop. TWSM has been designed to permit such relationships to be shown and through such evidence enhance the professionalization of both teaching and teacher education.

The Knowledge Base Underlying Teaching and Learning

TWSM builds on the exponential expansion in the last 15 to 20 years of the knowledge base pertaining to teaching and learning and the fundamental shift in that knowledge base from a largely behaviorist tradition to one dominated by cognitive and contextual considerations. TWS reflects the cognitive demands of a standards-based classroom on both teachers and children and takes into account the supports and constraints of the context in which teaching and learning occur.

In addition, teacher work sampling requires integrating cognitive and contextual considerations at all stages of the planning, teaching, evaluating, and reflecting processes that are embedded in it and comparing them with the learning gains made by pupils as a consequence of instruction. The methodology does not require strict adherence to any set of instructional methods or any preferred set of assessment procedures, but it does demand familiarity with a broad range of best practices on both counts. The methodology also emphasizes an appropriate alignment of both instruction and assessment with learning outcome(s) to be accomplished, the characteristics of children who are to learn, and the context in which teaching and learning occur. We view this complex set of methodological demands to be consistent with the current knowledge base pertaining to teaching and learning.

Quality Control and Quality Assurance

TWSM is designed to address the long-standing and currently growing concern about the quality of teachers in our schools. In fact, the entire rationale of the methodology anchors to this concern by rejecting the view that having evidence of what teachers know and can do is sufficient to ensure they will be successful in helping children learn. TWSM is based on the premise that being effective as a teacher requires the artful and ever changing integration of teaching knowledge and skills with learning outcomes to be accomplished, pupil characteristics, and the nature of classroom/school contexts in which teaching and learning occur. It also is based on the premise that if you want to be sure a teacher can do so, the best place to look is for evidence of pupils' progress in learning. When viewed in this way, teacher work sampling can be used as a vehicle for quality control and quality assurance.[7]

Distinguishing Between Quality of Teachers and Quality of Teaching

Controlling for or even ensuring quality of teachers at the point of licensing will not ensure quality in teaching. It increases the probability of effective teaching and probably ensures the *possibility* of effective teaching, but an initial licensing decision can never ensure quality in practice. A teacher's effectiveness in a classroom is conditioned powerfully by the school, district, and community context in which teaching and learning occur, and it is possible (some would argue common in inner-city schools) for these conditions to be so debilitating and contradictory to pupil and teacher work that even a "quality" teacher is unable to help all of his or her pupils learn. Learning in a school almost always transcends the efforts of individual teachers, and this reality needs to be kept in mind in distinguishing between quality teachers and quality teaching. TWSM applications in the initial preparation and licensure of teachers cannot ensure effectiveness as a 1st-, 2nd-, or 3rd-year teacher, but TWS applications in the mentoring and evaluation of beginning teachers for advanced licensure can go a long way toward doing so.

Pushing for Predictive Validity as a Logical, and Needed, Next Step

The issue of quality assurance in teachers and teaching points to the desirability of research to determine the extent to which it is possible to *predict*, on the basis of their performance during or before their experience as student teachers, whether teachers will be successful with pupils in their first several years of teaching. This research would necessarily be complex in design, with close attention being given to context effects on both predictor and predicted performance. Without such research, we will never know the extent to which licensure decisions to ensure quality translate into practices that ensure learning. TWSM, as a vehicle for research, can make important contributions to such a research agenda.

The Validation Argument

Teacher work sampling, as described in the preceding pages and translated into practice at Western—with the accompanying evidence of reliability and validity reported in chapter 3—provides a convincing argument for the timeliness, appropriateness, defensibility, and worth of the methodology as a vehicle for preparing and evaluating prospective teachers to work in 21st-century schools. Through its design, it responds to many of the critical philosophical, ethical, political, procedural, and quality assurance issues faced by today's teacher education community and does so in a way that appropriately reflects the current knowledge base underlying the field.

SUMMARY

The chapter describes a methodology that has been developed in Oregon for meaningfully connecting teaching and learning, refined in its applications in teacher preparation and licensing by Western Oregon University faculty, and studied extensively as a vehicle for research, evaluation, and training by faculty from the Teaching Research Division at Western. A national advisory panel has guided a 3-year study of the reliability and validity of the methodology when used for these various purposes and recently issued a report that attests to its merit and worth on all counts. A summary of these findings is reported in chapter 3.

The system is called teacher work sample methodology. The present chapter focuses primarily on its applications in the initial preparation and licensing of teachers, with brief attention given to its use in advanced preparation and licensing. Brief attention also is given to the role of the methodology in preparing teachers to work in standards-based schools. A detailed discussion of this issue is reserved for chapter 2.

At the heart of the methodology is a way of thinking about teaching and learning that differs dramatically from what teachers have been prepared to think in the past. It is anchored to what children are to learn, how well each child is progressing toward these targets for learning, and doing whatever it takes to help each child reach the targets. In its most concrete form, it is a goal-directed and outcome-based approach to teaching and learning.

In its more abstract form, TWSM represents an approach to teaching and learning that calls for the alignment and integration of curriculum, instruction, and assessment, with both curriculum (what is to be learned) and assessment (how well learning is progressing) serving as handmaidens to instruction. This merging of three major dimensions of teaching that historically have been treated as reasonably separate entities—or at best loosely coupled entities—places new burdens on teachers in thinking about their craft and an added layer of knowledge and skills needed for its implementation. It also adds to the complexity of decision making by teachers and the roller coaster of emotions that come with having to systematically and continuously confront the impact (results) of their work on the learning of their pupils. How different this approach to teaching and learning is from that of most classrooms during most of the 20th century and how it anticipates the nation's move toward a standards orientation to schooling are discussed in chapter 2.

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NOTES

1. We wish to express our appreciation to colleagues Mark Schalock, Jerry Girod, and Andrew McConney for their repeated reviews of and recommendations about the organization and content of this chapter.
2. Teacher work sampling has been part of Oregon's standards for the initial preparation and licensing of teachers since 1986. Two samples of work are required, with the second being prepared largely independently (as in a thesis for a master's degree) by a candidate. Revisions to the 1986 standards reaffirm the use of teacher work sampling for initial teacher licensing and extend its use for advanced (continuing) licensing.
3. Most teacher preparation institutions in Oregon also employ a mini-work sample around a scaled-down unit of study as a context in which to understand and practice the art of TWSs before the first formal work sample to be produced. These mini-work samples are used as contexts for learning rather than for demonstrating proficiency.
4. Since the preparation of this chapter, at least three other states have either formally adopted or are piloting the use of teacher work sampling as a means of assessing teacher impact on learning as a condition of licensure: Colorado, Georgia, and Kentucky.
5. Oregon Administrative Rules, Division 017—*Objectives for a Continuing License to Teach* (pp. 8 & 9), published by the Oregon Teacher Standards and Practices Commission, January 1998.
6. The teacher education policy community has recently begun to recognize the attractiveness and timeliness of the philosophical position underlying teacher work sampling and the promise the methodology holds for dealing with issues of teacher quality and the preparation of a workforce to implement a standards-based design for schools. Both the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) have taken steps toward formally advocating the connection of teaching and learning in the preparation and licensing of teachers. NCATE probably has progressed farthest in this regard, with its emerging standards for program review directing attention to evidence of knowledge, skill, *and* results with pupils taught. AACTE, however, has taken a similar stance in its leadership role for deans and directors of teacher education.
7. Institutions using teacher work samples need to validate their use of the methodology in their own contexts, as validation is always context and use specific (Shepard, 1993).

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CHAPTER 2

Teacher Work Sample Methodology With a Standards Orientation

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Teacher work sample methodology (TWSM), as described in the previous chapter, places heavy demands on teacher candidates. It also carries far-reaching implications for teacher education faculties. For candidates, it presumes that teaching will lead to learning and that the knowledge and skills needed to help all children accomplish designated learning outcomes of importance are in place. For teacher education and arts and sciences faculties, it presumes that courses offered, laboratory experiences provided, and field supervisors used will form a unifying program that provides candidates not only the enabling knowledge and skills needed to be effective as a teacher but also the opportunities needed to practice and demonstrate proficiency in their application.

In much the same way that an effective teacher has to align and integrate curriculum, instruction, and assessment with the learning outcome(s) that pupils are to accomplish, a teacher education faculty has to align and integrate program offerings and practices to ensure that candidates are prepared to meet the demands that TWSM places upon them. Because these demands take the depth and form they do, most existing teacher preparation programs need to be modified appreciably for candidates to be able to meet this challenge. The nature of these changes is addressed later in this chapter.

ADDING THE COMPLEXITY OF A STANDARDS ORIENTATION TO K-12 SCHOOLING

As pointed out in the previous chapter, as long as teacher work samples (TWSs) are limited to relatively short units of instruction, the full complexity of standards-based teaching and learning does not have to be addressed. Some simple additions to tasks 3, 8, and 9 listed in Table 1.2 are all that is required. This earlier discussion emphasized, however, that while these additions do not add greatly to the time or energy required by a teacher candidate and his or her supervisors to prepare or evaluate a TWS, they add enormously to the complexity of the instructional tasks facing a candidate.

These complexities are magnified many times when TWSM carries a standards orientation over a longer period of time and across subject areas. These complexities lie in the nature of standards-based teaching and learning and their implications for life in classrooms. In states moving toward implementing a standards orientation in their schools, the scope and depth of these changes need to be understood to fully appreciate their implications for the way teachers need to think about teaching and learning and, as a consequence, how teacher educators need to think about teacher preparation and licensing. These changes also have far-reaching implications for the design of TWSs.

Teaching and Learning in Standards-Based Schools[1]

After more than a decade of policy initiatives, experimental programs, and state plans for improving school-based learning triggered by the 1983 publication *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education), both legislative and education leaders have come to embrace high and explicit standards for learning as the key to school improvement. This emphasis has led to an extraordinary level of activity nationally and in 49 of the 50 states around the identification of such standards. While there is as yet no sign of a national curriculum for education, nearly all states are now clear about what they want pupils to know and be able to do as they progress through school.

What makes the standards movement truly revolutionary in American education is the view that all pupils who are not severely handicapped intellectually or emotionally are expected to reach these high standards for learning and that all pupils will be submitted to a system of examinations throughout their school years that is consistent with the standards for learning expected of them. An equally revolutionary feature of the standards movement is the view that teachers and administrators should be held accountable for seeing that children reach these standards. And both instruction and instructional programs offered by schools that are not successful will be improved until pupils do accomplish the learning outcomes desired. This view of education is dramatically different from the one most people hold in our nation today. For this newer view to be implemented, a dramatically different view of the preparation and licensing of school personnel will be needed.

The core of the standards orientation to schooling being developed by most states is the designation of high and explicit standards for learning (both content and performance standards) and the creation of a system for assessing progress in learning that is aligned with the standards of accomplishment expected. Many states include additional elements in their design such as how curriculum and instruction are to be organized to facilitate the learning desired or the consequences of pupils' meeting or not meeting the level of learning expected. Generally speaking, however, states thus far have attended less to means and consequences than to ends and their assessment.

While standards and assessments are critically important to the improvement of schools, most states now recognize that simply expecting more from pupils, letting them know what these expectations are, and assessing whether the standards have or have not been met are not likely in and of themselves to bring about a dramatic change in learning. As the editors of *Education Week*'s "Quality Counts" recognize, "In the end, the success of a school system depends on its teachers ... [and] schools that are organized and operated in a way that encourages and supports teaching and learning" ("Quality Counts," 1997, p. 3).

It is on this point, however, where most state designs for school improvement and documents like "Quality Counts" become vague or are largely silent. More time or resources may be allocated to assist with learning, or better preparation may be specified for teachers, or teachers may be given time to work cooperatively with colleagues or function as members of councils responsible for school policies and practices affecting teaching, but these solutions do not necessarily change what children and teachers do in classrooms. A standards-based design for teaching and learning carries with it new assumptions about what needs to occur between teachers and pupils. Both teachers and teacher educators need to understand what these assumptions are if teachers are to function in the manner intended. While these changes are discussed in detail in subsequent sections of this chapter, a sample of the changes they bring to a classroom is provided in Table 2.1.

Shifts of the kind illustrated in Table 2.1 that accompany a standards orientation to schooling are so pervasive that they fundamentally change the nature of schooling as it has been practiced in the United States for the past 100 years.[2]

Table 2.1. A Sample of Changes in Teaching and Learning When Moving From a Norm-Referenced to a Standards-Based Design for Schools

Shifts in the organization of schools

Progression in learning	From a system of schooling that holds pupils' progression from grade to grade as prima facie evidence of progress in learning . . .	To a system of schooling that holds pupils' accomplishment of designated standards for learning at various developmental levels (benchmarks) as the true measure of progress in learning.
Grouping pupils for learning	From a system of schooling where pupils commonly are tracked into low, middle, and upper ability groupings, with expectations for learning, resources for learning, and instructional procedures varying accordingly . . .	To a system of schooling where pupils are grouped in ways that ensure equality of opportunity to learn, are exposed to activities that accommodate differences in interests and abilities, and are challenged to use the mind well rather than memorize and accumulate information.
Evidence of success in learning	From a system of schooling where evidence of pupils' success is obtained primarily through norm-referenced (rather than criterion-referenced) measures, the accumulation of Carnegie units, grade point averages, and the award of a high school diploma . . .	To a system of schooling where evidence of pupils' success is obtained primarily through criterion (standards)-referenced rather than norm-referenced measures, and certificates of accomplishment rather than diplomas of completion are viewed as the major markers of success.

table continues next page

Table 2.1. (continued)

Shifts in the nature of instruction

Standards-based instruction	From an approach to instruction where textbook coverage is central, where how much is learned or how well something is learned is left largely to teachers and pupils, and where time for learning does not vary appreciably for children with different learning styles or needs . . .	To an approach to instruction that makes the accomplishment of clearly specified outcomes by all children central, where how much or how well something is learned is influenced by state-defined standards, and where time for learning and methods of instruction are free to vary so long as they produce learning and are culturally/linguistically appropriate.
Developmentally appropriate instruction	From an approach to instruction that targets what is to be learned, how it is to be learned, and the time allotted for learning largely on a grade-by-grade or course-by-course basis . . .	To an approach to instruction that varies what is to be learned within particular projects or lessons or units of study, how it is to be learned, and the time it takes to learn to accommodate the diversity in developmental readiness for learning found among children in a classroom.
Contextually embedded instruction	From an approach to instruction where one method or activity is intended to foster learning in all pupils who are working toward a particular outcome . . .	To an approach to instruction where methods and activities used by teachers to foster learning are contextually embedded and adapted to fit the individual needs of children working toward a particular outcome at a particular point in time.
Flexibility of time as a variable in learning	From viewing time as a relatively inflexible and nonnegotiable element in achieving the outcomes expected of schooling, with outcomes desired and standards for outcome attainment free to vary . . .	To viewing the broad outcomes of learning desired and the standards for their accomplishment as relatively inflexible and nonnegotiable, with time for learning and avenues for learning free to vary.

table continues next page

The adoption of designated standards of accomplishment for pupils and the accompanying expectation that *all* children who are not severely disabled intellectually will meet *all* standards are cases in point.

So is the accompanying necessity of treating assessment as an integral part of teaching and learning. To continuously monitor the progress pupils are making toward the learning outcomes they are expected to accomplish and to continuously adapt learning plans and procedures to accommodate progress made, the ongoing assessment of learning in the classroom must serve as a handmaiden to instruction.

When all the other changes called for in a standards orientation to schooling are added, it is our belief that educators will simply have to think differently

Table 2.1. (continued)

Shifts in the nature of assessment, record keeping, and reporting

Standards-based assessment	From teachers assessing pupils' learning in whatever way they see fit, with neither pupils nor teachers particularly clear about learning outcomes to be achieved, and districts assessing pupils' learning through nationally normed achievement tests that cover only a portion of what has been taught …	To requiring the faculty of a district and its schools to define, develop, and use defensible measures of pupils' progress toward outcomes desired, including scores on state-administered examinations that are aligned with the learning outcomes desired.
Common performance standards	From permitting performance standards for learning to be established largely by individual teachers, in the form of requirements for a grade of A, B, C, or D, and permitting them to vary from course to course and pupil to pupil …	To requiring that performance standards for pupils' progress through school and for the attainment of certificates of mastery or diplomas be linked to clearly defined and common standards for all pupils that are benchmarked to the highest standards set for pupils' learning anywhere in the world.
Criterion-referenced measures	From viewing assessment as being primarily norm referenced and a vehicle for providing information leading to the assignment of grades that are not tied to clearly stated or widely shared performance criteria …	To viewing assessment as primarily criterion referenced and as a vehicle for monitoring, assisting, and reporting on the learning progress of pupils toward outcomes that have clearly stated performance criteria.
Multiple sources of evidence over extended periods of time	From relying on assessment information provided by one teacher in one course or one grade level in judging merit and progress in pupils' learning …	To relying on assessment information provided by several teachers and through state-administered examinations at benchmark grades in judging merit and progress in pupils' learning.
Multiple uses of assessment information	From an approach to assessment that is largely summative in nature, used primarily for assigning letter grades for pupils' performance, and rarely used as a guide to the improvement of instruction or a source of information for pupils about their learning strengths and weaknesses …	To an approach to assessment that is largely formative in nature and is used not only to inform pupils, parents, and teachers of progress toward outcomes to be achieved but also to inform children about where they need to improve their work, to guide instructional planning, and to improve instructional programs that are not accomplishing the learning outcomes desired.
Certification as a new use of assessment information	From using the accumulation of credit hours of instruction, years spent in school, and grade point average as a basis for graduation and a high school diploma …	To using information about pupils' achievement, as described above, to certify that a pupil has accomplished the learning goals required for a certificate of mastery or a diploma at the level of performance called for.

about the nature of pupils' and teachers' work in schools. And if this is true, it follows that teacher educators will have to think differently about the preparation of teachers and administrators to work in such schools. TWSM, as described in chapter 1, incorporates many of these changes but does not fully reflect them as they are lived by pupils and teachers in classrooms over an extended period of time.

Confronting the Past as Prologue to the Future

The design for the nation's public schools that emerged in the last half of the 19th century and persisted throughout most of the 20th century stands in stark contrast to the design that is emerging under the banner of standards. The 20th-century design was essentially a normative design whose dominant features were low expectations for learning, an emphasis on aptitude rather than effort, the use of achievement tests to sort rather than educate, and the use of norm-referenced rather than criterion-referenced standards for judging students' performance (L. Resnick, 1987; L. Resnick & Nolan, 1995; L. Resnick & Resnick, 1992). These defining features of 20th-century American education evolved to meet the needs of the nation at a particular point in its history and reflected the theory and technology of the times, but they provide an interlocking, mutually reinforcing set of legacies most schools and teachers find difficult to overcome as they move to adopt a standards orientation to schooling. Appendix B contains an elaboration of these legacies. The reader is encouraged to spend a few minutes with them to see what a dramatically different way of thinking about teaching and learning is needed when engaging in standards-based schooling. The description of teacher work sampling provided in chapter 1 moves beyond these legacies but does not reflect the full range of subtleties and complexities confronting pupils and teachers in standards-based classrooms.

INTEGRATING CURRICULUM, INSTRUCTION, AND ASSESSMENT: THE THEORY AND TECHNOLOGY OF TEACHING IN STANDARDS-BASED SCHOOLS

The broad outlines for the redesign of pupil and teacher work in schools organized around standards for learning have been sketched in the previous pages. This sketch now needs to be elaborated as a basis for the design of TWSs in teacher preparation programs supporting a standards orientation to schooling. This elaboration needs to start with the nature of pupils' work, for in a standards orientation to schooling, pupils' work is the basis for teachers' work.

The Redesign of Pupil Work in Standards-Based Schools

The following overview of standards-based learning should be approached as a work in progress. The knowledge base on which it rests is not well integrated, but it is sufficiently well developed to permit the following outline to be offered with reasonable confidence.[3]

Condition 1. *High expectations are established for learning.* This condition has been described sufficiently, so no more needs to be said about it other than to reaffirm that it is at the heart of a standards orientation to schooling: All else stems from and returns to it.

Condition 2. *Expectations for learning are translated into standards for learning.* This condition also has been described sufficiently, so no more needs to be said about it except to reiterate that standards set the benchmarks for learning. They define, when portrayed through pupils' work, how good is good enough. Standards are what make obsolete the normative view that ability is what counts and that a normal curve of achievement—with grades of A through F to buttress and report it—is the way that learning in schools must be.

Condition 3. *Each pupil is responsible for accomplishing each standard for learning, and each school is responsible for seeing that each child is successful in doing so.* While pupils in standards-based schools still vary in how quickly they learn, how much they learn, and the level of understanding they bring to their learning, their performance is not judged primarily in relation to the performance of others. Instead, it is judged primarily in relation to their own progress toward the standards that have been set for learning. Widely varying expectations or requirements for pupils' learning from school to school or from teacher to teacher within a school should not exist. Widely varying conditions of learning exist within and across classrooms to accommodate differences in how pupils learn.

Condition 4. *Each pupil and his or her parents understand and are able to plan and prepare in relation to the standards for learning that are to be accomplished.* There should be little uncertainty on the part of children and parents about what is to be accomplished in school or what can be done at home to help a child succeed in school. There also should be fewer meaningless homework assignments, fewer unfocused parent/teacher conferences, and fewer learners complaining of "having nothing to do." Clarity is to replace the uncertainty that has characterized schooling in the past, and effort is to replace aptitude as the coin of the realm.

Condition 5. *Each pupil, with the guidance and assistance of his or her teachers, parents, and peers, plans and pursues a course of study that leads to steady progress toward each standard of learning that is to be accomplished.* This condition should lead to further clarity about work to be done in school and why it is to be done. It also should lead to less reliance on a teacher or a textbook as the primary source of information in a school and fewer instances of working alone when working with others would be more productive. There are endless ways to learn and endless sources of information to assist with learning. Standards-based teaching and learning depend on taking advantage of them all.

Condition 6. *Each pupil and his or her parents are able to monitor progress being made toward each standard for learning that is to be accomplished; the information provided about progress is useful in planning further work.* This supplements those conditions already described by reducing uncertainty on the part of pupils and their parents about progress being made in school and what remains to be learned in the immediate or distant future. In a standards orientation to schooling, the ongoing assessment of learning becomes an integral and essential part of teaching, because assessment results are used to enhance and report progress toward the standards. Grading the performance of children in relation to the performance of others may still occur in standards-based schools, but if it occurs it is to serve purposes other than sorting and grading pupils as a primary aim of schooling.

Condition 7. *Each pupil, with the guidance and assistance of his or her teachers, parents, and peers, assembles samples of work and related forms of evidence to be used in demonstrating to others that a particular standard for learning has in fact been accomplished.* This condition should lead to less reliance on pop quizzes, midterm or final exams, or term reports as the primary means of evaluating pupils' work. These approaches to assessment may still be used, but if they are, they usually are treated as part of a portfolio of work a child assembles in support of his or her progress toward a standard for learning to be accomplished. Most state designs for standards-based schools require that multiple lines of evidence be assembled in support of each standard for learning to be accomplished, including evidence from teacher-assigned work as well as state- and school-administered examinations. All such evidence, however, is to be organized and presented in a manner that independent judges can use to defensibly certify that a standard for learning has in fact been met.

Condition 8. *Each pupil will receive as much help as needed over as long a period of time as needed to assemble a portfolio of evidence that will convince others that a standard of learning has been met.* This condition is the nature of the pupil-teacher-school-parent compact at the center of standards-based schooling and has no counterpart in norm-referenced schooling. It also is the compact that will cause the nature of school structure and organization, teaching and job definitions of teachers, and teaching as a profession to change. A combination of all such changes is needed if all pupils enrolled in a school are to accomplish high standards for learning.

Condition 9. *Each pupil will present and defend his or her portfolio of evidence in support of having met a standard for learning at each of several benchmarks in the schooling process.* Presenting and defending a portfolio of evidence can take a variety of forms and probably varies in formality at different developmental levels (for example, two teachers and a parent may serve as a portfolio review team at the primary or intermediate levels, while a panel of teachers and community representatives could serve as the team at the high school level). But verification of pupils' accomplishment is an essential feature of standards-based schooling. Learners are expected not only to learn but also to document, display, and defend their learning. Parents, teachers, and community members are expected, as is reasonable, to participate in judging accomplishments in learning against an agreed-to standard for learning rather than norm-referenced indicators of learning. A pupil's learning accomplishments need to be verified and certified in a standards-based system of schooling rather than taken on faith based on a passing grade in a course of study.

Condition 10. *If certification of accomplishment is denied, an appeal process needs to be available, but more important, a pupil must have continued access to Conditions 8 and 9.* A standards-based system of schooling must include opportunities for a pupil to continue to learn and to strengthen the evidence in his or her portfolio of accomplishment. There must be opportunities to present one's portfolio of work a second or even a third time. Each school district needs to determine how long this process can continue and what happens when a pupil is denied further opportunity for certification. An educational system based on effort, opportunity, and standards quickly encounters the hard realities of time and resources in its operation.

These conditions of learning for pupils and their parents in standards-based schools are far different from those that have characterized school-based learning in the past. Targets for learning are much clearer, information about progress toward and performance in relation to these targets is available to both students and parents, and children have greater flexibility in both time and assistance for learning. In standards-based classrooms, teachers are coaches and facilitators of learning as much as they are conveyors of what is to be learned and evaluators of what has been learned.

An equally important change in standards-based schooling is the role that pupils assume as managers of their own learning and assemblers of evidence about their learning. Both roles are essential accompaniments of a continuous-progress view of learning, and both change the dynamics of pupil and teacher relationships in a classroom. Under these conditions, children move from a traditionally passive-dependent role to one of greater independence and aggressiveness in pursuit of their own learning.

All these features of standards-based learning need to be taken into account if an institution is preparing teachers to work in standards-based schools and decides to incorporate teacher work sampling in its design for teacher preparation. The features of standards-based learning are subtle, but prospective teachers need to understand them as fully as possible if they are preparing to work in standards-based schools.

The Redesign of Teachers' Work in Standards-Based Schools

If pupils' work takes the form that has been described, it is reasonably clear that teachers' work needs to change as well. In many ways these changes parallel those required in pupils' work and as such represent a dramatic shift in how teachers' work needs to be defined. Most of the standards-based teaching practices outlined in the following section are dealt with in detail in section II of this handbook.[4]

Practice 1. *Mapping what pupils need to accomplish as they progress toward meeting performance standards.* In most classrooms, this mapping is carried out against two frames of reference. The first is the set of content and performance standards for learning that have been differentiated developmentally for "benchmark grades" and the standards adopted by a legislative body or board of education. The second is the curricular structure and other program-related decisions that have been established locally as to who will teach what in which order (scope and sequence) for children to have the learning opportunities needed to meet the overarching performance standards set for learning. The results of this complex mapping task define the broad parameters of one's responsibilities for helping pupils learn within a particular teaching assignment and are defined concretely in terms of responsibility for helping *each* child progress toward the level of accomplishment called for by *each* benchmarked performance standard that lies immediately ahead.

Practice 2. *Charting the status or progress of pupils in relation to the benchmarked performance standards that lie immediately ahead.* Standards-based teaching reflects a continuous progress model of instruction that involves helping children move from one level of accomplishment to another, with each level of accomplishment often more demanding than the last. It also is a model of teaching that carries with it the assumption that learning is hierarchical in nature, though not necessarily linear, and that foundations or building blocks need to be in place for more demanding learning to occur. This especially is the case when pupils are required to engage in complex reasoning or problem-solving tasks, both of which are a central aim of most state designs for standards-based schools.

A corollary of this position is that for teachers to foster this kind and level of learning, they must know where a learner is in his or her journey toward each benchmarked standard. This requires that the assessment of learning become an essential part of teaching, in fact a prerequisite to teaching, and that teachers become as skillful in assessing learning as they are in designing learning experiences. It also means that a state department of education and local school districts need to share with teachers all the information they have about pupils' progress in learning and do so in a manner and on a time line that is useful in standards-oriented classrooms.

Practice 3. *Informing pupils and their parents of the standards for learning that lie ahead and where a child currently stands in relation to them.* Most pupils and their parents know generally about the standards of learning to be accomplished at each benchmark in the schooling process, especially those at the benchmark that lies immediately ahead, but a teacher needs to be sure that there is no confusion or uncertainty in this regard. More important, teachers need to be sure that both pupils and parents understand where a child stands with respect to accomplishing these and subsequent standards, and both need to comprehend fully the implications of this status assessment for the work the child will pursue during a school year. Using illustrative samples of pupils' work that re-

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flect both the level of accomplishment needed to reach each standard and where a pupil currently stands in relation to them is probably a teacher's best resource in informing children and parents about expectations for learning.

Practice 4. *Designing classroom curricula, instruction, and assessments that will move pupils from where they are to where they need to be.* This practice involves the development of units and lesson plans that are aligned with one or more content/performance standards children are pursuing, where pupils stand in their pursuit of each standard, and other specifics of context that influence instruction and learning, such as the availability of time and resources. Good teachers have always adapted instruction to accommodate pupils' developmental and knowledge levels, but in standards-based classrooms, teachers need to tailor instruction and other learning experiences to accommodate children's stances in relation to each standard for learning to be accomplished.

In this sense, units of instruction need to reflect pupils' progress in learning as well as abilities and interests in learning, though not as formally as in preparation of an individualized education plan. Standards-based teaching, however, does require preinstructional assessment and the tailoring of instruction to move pupils from where they are to where they need to be (see Table 1.2). It also requires that teachers determine whether benchmarks for learning have in fact been achieved or whether further progress in learning is needed. A constant tension exists in standards-based teaching and learning between tailoring instruction for individuals versus the class as a whole or subgroups in a class, and deciding when to move on at the risk of leaving individuals behind. It is possible to continue to strengthen pupils' learning skills as the next instructional units are designed, but it is difficult to make up for lost content.

Practice 5. *Organizing classroom, school, and community resources in such a way that pupils are able to pursue their instructional plans and be assisted in their pursuit as needed.* Sometimes such an organization of resources calls for direct instruction or carefully guided learning in the context of individual or group work. At other times it involves self-guided work in a library, work on the Internet, or participation with project teams in or out of school. The overriding task of a teacher in a standards-based school is to create a broadly based community of learners that will nurture pupils' growth on many fronts. At all times within this community, however, and under all conditions, learning is targeted to clearly articulated standards of performance, and children as well as teachers monitor progress in learning against these standards.

Practice 6. *Providing emotional support and assistance as pupils pursue high standards for learning.* Living with, working toward, and being judged against high standards for academic work is emotionally and intellectually demanding. Thus, both learners and parents are likely to need support and assistance in dealing with the frustration, disappointment, anger, anxiety, or other emotions that may accompany less than adequate performance in relation to standards. Conversely, pupils and parents may need guidance in dealing with the exuberance, confidence, and sense of pride that comes when high standards are met. While teachers are familiar with this spectrum of emotions in most classrooms, these displays are likely to take somewhat different forms and galvanize around different issues in standards-oriented schools. Teachers need to be aware of this affective side of standards-based teaching and learning and be prepared to deal with it.

Practice 7. *Affirming the dignity and worth of pupils and parents regardless of the differences they bring to a school or where a child stands with respect to learning goals to be achieved in school.* A standards orientation to schooling does not change the fundamental obligation that teachers always have had to pupils and parents, but working toward standards is likely to bring it into sharper focus. Differences in learning status, styles, and expectations will be accentuated. The importance of effort—and sustaining effort over long periods of time—becomes paramount in a standards orientation to schooling. While the increasing diversity common among learners in most schools and among families served by schools increases the complexity of standards-based teaching, it simultaneously increases the importance of honoring the diversity encountered.

Practice 8. *Monitoring the progress of each child toward the benchmarked standards being pursued and helping pupils become proficient in monitoring their own progress.* Both teachers and learners in standards-based schools have access to samples of and scoring guides for pupils' work that reflect the benchmarked standards of performance expected. Some of these scoring guides (rubrics) are used in common across all schools, but others are created by faculties in a school or by children in a classroom. Whatever their source, these guides to scoring pupils' work provide both teachers and learners a clear sense of the quality of work necessary to meet a standard of accomplishment. Teachers and pupils also use such guides to continuously monitor the progress being made toward the standards for learning they define. This process of monitoring progress in learning may or may not involve formal assessment of pupils' progress or lead to evidence of progress that will be considered in certifying that a child has in fact met a performance standard, but it will provide the information that both teachers and learners need to retarget a plan or level of work if progress toward a benchmarked standard of performance is less than desired.

Practice 9. *Retargeting a plan or level of work if progress toward a standard of performance is less than desired.* In many ways, this is the most complex and demanding practice in standards-based teaching. Designing initial work plans and monitoring progress toward a benchmarked standard of performance are its precursors, but if progress is not proceeding as intended, either the plan of work or the level of effort put forth by a learner in carrying out the plan is less than it needs to be. Neither pinpointing the problem that needs to be addressed nor fixing it is easy to do.

Yet doing both is essential if standards-based schooling is to work. Because the performance standards will not change and pupils are not free to negotiate them away, learning plans must change, pupil or teacher diligence must change, or new ways of teaching or learning must be found. Determining which is the right course to pursue and then pursuing it successfully demand the best of everyone involved—particularly when one considers that this kind of trouble-shooting and problem solving is likely to be a common occurrence in most classrooms with most learners most of the time!

Practice 10. *Tutoring pupils in selecting samples of work and related forms of evidence to use in demonstrating that a particular standard of performance has been accomplished, and coaching pupils in organizing and presenting this portfolio of evidence to those who are making that judgment.* In most states, this demonstration involves three lines of interlocking evidence: (a) selected samples of work from teacher-defined assignments, examinations, or projects; (b) performance on teacher-assigned tasks that are common across all schools; and (c) performance on state-administered tests and standardized assessments addressing state-defined content standards at selected benchmark grades. Certifying that a benchmarked performance standard has been met typically requires supporting evidence from all three sources.

This heavy reliance on assessment information puts a tremendous burden for organization and timing on teachers and pupils alike for obtaining, acting on, and reporting information. Such information needs to be orchestrated for all learners seeking review for a particular level of certification. The demands of standards-based schooling on everyone involved are appreciably greater than they are in norm-referenced schools. The practical matter of record keeping and reporting adds appreciably to those demands.

Practice 11. *Certifying that a child has met a learning standard (or all standards called for at a particular benchmark) or denying certification and deciding how to help a pupil further prepare to meet the standard(s) in question.* In the schools that most readers of this handbook attended, a teacher "certified" that a pupil attended class often enough to receive credit for doing so. In addition, the teacher assigned a grade of A through F to indicate the level of performance in the class relative to the performance of others. The teacher was under no obligation to certify that a designated standard of learning had or had not been met or to have learners prepared to present and defend a body of evidence to others who must make this decision about certification.

In a standards-based school, the certification process is a central obligation of teachers, either formally or informally. In some schools or at some benchmarks, teachers may be asked to be the certifying agent. In other schools or at other benchmarks, teachers may be responsible only for ensuring that learners are prepared and can present their case for certification to others who make the evaluative decision. In either case, teachers must be sure that a pupil has met the standard(s) of accomplishment needed to be certified before presenting a case formally for having done so. This is a markedly different form of responsibility from that asked of teachers in norm-referenced schools, and it represents a much heavier burden.

Practice 12. *Recording and reporting each pupil's progress toward the accomplishment of benchmarked standards.* Both pupils and teachers need to record the child's progress to determine what steps the learner needs to take in the journey toward the benchmarked standards that lie immediately ahead. Both students and teachers also need to report this progress to others, for example, parents, other teachers, and probably administrators. How this is to be done effectively and efficiently remains to be seen, but electronic transcripts of the kind being explored in the Proficiency-Based Admissions Standards System (PASS) projects in Oregon hold promise. So does the much simpler merit badge approach used so successfully in the Central Park East Secondary School in Harlem (Meier, 1995).

Practice 13. *Reflecting on, evaluating, and continuing to enhance one's effectiveness in fostering pupils' learning progress toward benchmarked standards of accomplishment.* In approaching the transformations needed in teaching and learning as a school shifts from a norm-referenced to a standards-based mode of operation and the school restructuring that is needed to support these transformations, it is unreasonable to assume that all teachers will be immediately successful with all children in all subject areas. Within this context, continued professional growth and development take on new meaning for everyone involved and need to receive high priority in an educational system.

Reflection, self-evaluation, and self-guided improvement are a cornerstone in this restructured professional development system, but these practices need to be supplemented by conditions such as advanced and continuing licensing systems, staff development programs addressing school and district priorities, professional enhancement programs addressing individual needs and priorities, workforce orientation and training programs addressing regional or state priorities, and performance appraisal, evaluation, and improvement systems that link to pupils' progress in learning. Without a thoughtful, well-organized, and well-managed professional development system integrating all these components and without attention focused on pupils' success in meeting benchmarked performance standards as the anchor, the likelihood that all children will meet all standards for learning is small.

Practice 14. *Reflecting on, evaluating, and continuing to enhance instructional programs in one's school and district.* While a pupil's journey toward benchmarked standards is guided by a series of teachers, it takes place in the context of instructional programs. Although they may vary from one school to another in organization and operation, they are the vehicles around which curriculum, assessment, instructional resources, time, and teacher job definitions are organized. In most schools, they also are the organizational structures in which learners pursue benchmarked standards of accomplishment, and they thus require the coordination and articulation of teacher work within and across grades.

In approaching the design and operation of instructional programs as schools shift in their orientation to standards, it is unreasonable to assume that newly designed programs will be immediately successful in providing all students the opportunities they need to reach all standards at benchmarked levels. In all probability, continuing refinements in program design and operation are needed for this to occur; moreover, this program evaluation and improvement should be pursued simultaneously with the evaluation and improvement of individual teacher performance. The two activities are not separate and should not be treated as such.

The foregoing practices represent a complex set of teaching practices that reflect but extend far beyond the teaching practices called for in teacher work sampling as described in chapter 1. They also address teacher practices that go beyond classrooms and focus on building and/or district issues. How teacher work sampling is to address these various issues in the context of initial preparation and licensing programs or, for that matter, in advanced preparation and licensing programs is a challenge that will need to be resolved by an institution choosing to prepare teachers to work in standards-based schools. Each institution will need to find its solution within the context of its own state milieu and its own conceptual and procedural preferences, but the solution found should keep intact the core elements that constitute the methodology. Oregon's standards for advanced or continuing licensure shown in Table 1.3 illustrate the foundation for such a design.

THREE LENSES FOR VIEWING THE WORK OF TEACHERS IN STANDARDS-BASED SCHOOLS

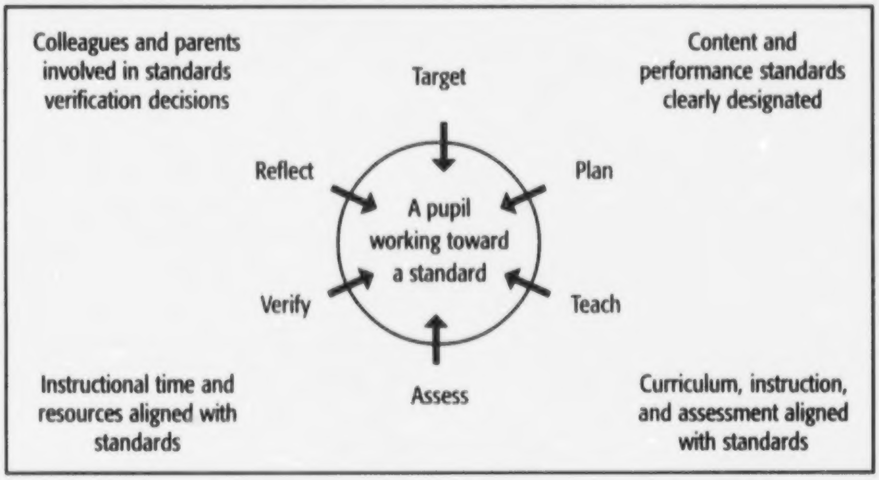
While the detailed, linear descriptions of the conditions of learning and practices of teaching provided in the previous pages are intended to be helpful in understanding a standards orientation to teaching and learning, they do not lead to easy comprehension and internalization. There is too much detail to see how they fit together or how they mesh into a meaningful and workable whole.

Three lenses are provided in the following pages that are intended to help in this regard. For purposes of clarity and simplicity, the first lens provides a picture of how this occurs at what is labeled a *micro* level, an individual child working toward a single standard. A second lens provides a picture of how the conditions of learning and practices of teaching mesh at a *macro* level, that is, a classroom of children working toward multiple standards. A third lens provides a picture of how these conditions of teaching and learning mesh at a *system* level, that is, at the level of a student body attending a school where pupils are working toward multiple standards across multiple benchmarks of accomplishment. The three levels represent a nested set of constantly interacting decisions that teachers need to make as they help children progress toward the benchmarked standards that lie immediately ahead. The hard reality facing teachers in standards-based classrooms is that they must simultaneously deal with all three levels.

Standards-Based Teaching and Learning From a Micro Perspective[5]

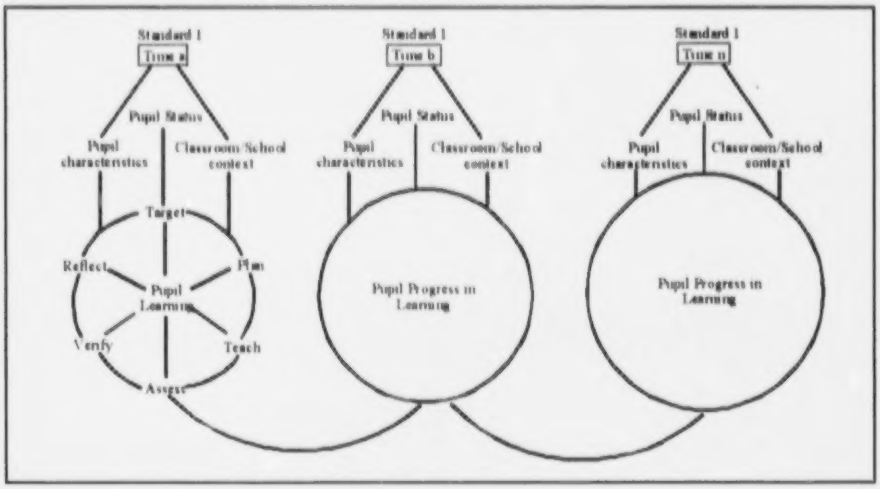
The 10 teaching tasks described in chapter 1 in the context of teacher work sampling (see Figure 1.1), as modified with the brief elaborations needed for tasks 3, 8, and 9, define most of the essential features of standards-based teaching and learning when viewed from a micro perspective. The one feature not attended to in this portrayal is the two dimensions of verification needed with respect to pupils' accomplishment: (a) whether a child's work reflects the level of accomplishment called for by a standard, and (b) whether the composite of work accumulated by a child in support of standard attainment is sufficient in scope as well as quality. Both dimensions of verification are essential in a standards orientation to schooling, and both require a decision structure pertaining to pupils' accomplishment that extends beyond an individual teacher. This feature of standards-based teaching and learning is included in the schematic of teaching to a standard that is shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1. Teaching to a Standard: A Micro Perspective


Colleagues and parents involved in standards verification decisions
Target
Content and performance standards clearly designated
Reflect
Plan
A pupil working toward a standard
Verify
Teach
Assess
Instructional time and resources aligned with standards
Curriculum, instruction, and assessment aligned with standards

While reasonably complete, this schematic provides only a static portrayal of a dynamic, ever changing process. A pupil starts at a particular point in his or her progress toward the achievement of a particular standard for learning, and the reality for both a teacher and a child is one of continuing progress toward it. For a teacher, this means understanding clearly where a learner is starting and adapting curriculum, instruction, and assessment accordingly to these needs—as well as to the context in which teaching and learning occur. It also means the continuous monitoring of progress and the continuous adapting of instruction on the basis of progress made. Finally, it means verifying or denying a learner's accomplishment of a standard, based on both level and scope of work assembled, and helping the child plan next steps in either case. This dynamic feature of teaching to a standard is better portrayed through a schematic such as the one appearing in Figure 2.2.[6]

Figure 2.2. Pupil Progress in Learning in a Standards-Based Educational System


Standard 1
Time a
Pupil Status
Pupil characteristics
Classroom/School context
Target
Reflect
Plan
Pupil Learning
Verify
Teach
Assess
Standard 1
Time b
Pupil Status
Pupil characteristics
Classroom/School context
Pupil Progress in Learning
Standard 1
Time n
Pupil Status
Pupil characteristics
Classroom/School context
Pupil Progress in Learning

Standards-Based Teaching and Learning From a Macro Perspective

While the micro perspective just described is enough to make most teachers blanch with its demands on time, assessment, record keeping, and adapting instruction to reflect pupils' learning progress toward a standard, a macro perspective is nearly overwhelming. Instead of having to attend to the information and decisions suggested by the schematic in Figure 2.2 for one child in relation to one standard—or even one child in relation to multiple standards—a teacher must attend to the information and decisions needed to facilitate the learning progress of *all* children in a classroom—each of whom is pursuing an idiosyncratic map of progress toward multiple standards in multiple subject areas. While each child's progress toward each standard is idiosyncratic, all pupils are expected to reach an established level of accomplishment for each standard.

How is this task to be done? Is it humanly possible to do, for both the teacher and the pupil? And if it is, how do teacher education programs prepare prospective teachers to think about teaching and learning in these terms and help them gain the knowledge, skills, and experience needed to function accordingly? The hard truth is that we do not know precisely how teachers do all that is asked of them in a standards-based school nor how to prepare them to do so. We do know, however, that in many schools most teachers are in fact able to function in this manner. We also know that teacher preparation programs can help them learn to do so and that teacher education faculties can differentiate among teacher candidates in their ability to do so. We acknowledge the artistry and grit in all this on the part of both teachers and teacher education faculties and stand in

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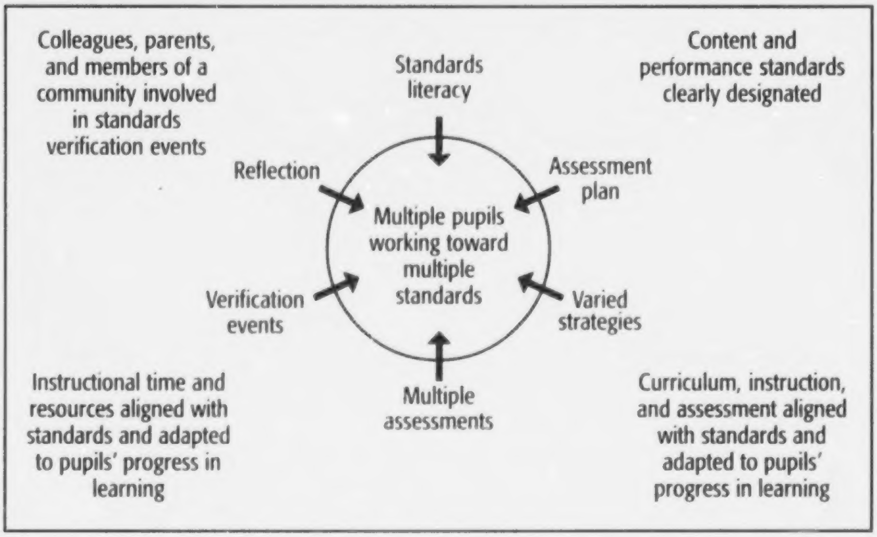
awe that it happens. However it happens, we believe it to be the operational meaning of teaching as a profession and teachers as professionals.

Visualizing life in a standards-based classroom, in contrast to a teacher working with a child in pursuit of a standard, is difficult to do. There is too much going on in such a classroom. Too many decisions are being made by too many people around too many idiosyncratic paths of progress in learning to be able to capture visually what appears to be near chaos on the surface. While limited in this regard, the schematic shown in Figure 2.3 is intended to convey at least some aspects of the macro reality of standards-based teaching and learning.

Figure 2.3. Teaching in a Standards-Based Classroom: A Macro Perspective


Colleagues, parents, and members of a community involved in standards verification events
Standards literacy
Content and performance standards clearly designated
Reflection
Assessment plan
Multiple pupils working toward multiple standards
Verification events
Varied strategies
Instructional time and resources aligned with standards and adapted to pupils' progress in learning
Multiple assessments
Curriculum, instruction, and assessment aligned with standards and adapted to pupils' progress in learning

Standards-Based Teaching and Learning From a System Perspective

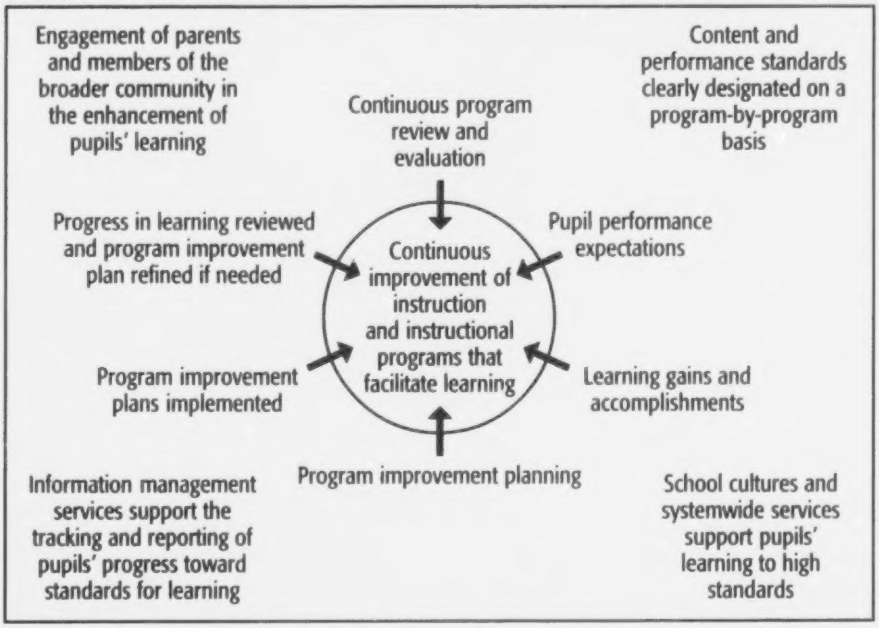
Classrooms are nested within schools, schools are nested within districts, and districts are nested within a state network of educational policies, practices, and designs. All levels of the educational enterprise are connected in one way or another. Historically, this connectedness has been loosely coupled with a great deal of autonomy at the district, school, and classroom levels. A standards orientation to schooling clearly tightens this level of connectedness, at least so far as what is to be learned and how well it is to be learned. A standards orientation to schooling makes explicit the *ends* to be achieved through a state's educational system, but it tends to leave the *means* for accomplishing the desired ends in the hands of local districts, schools, and teachers.

Even so, the realities of standards-based schooling do not permit districts, schools, or teachers to operate in a vacuum. Ultimately, districts are responsible for ensuring that all children are successful in their learning, but schools and teachers—individually and collectively—share in this responsibility. They do so through instructional programs that link time, resources, curriculum, teachers, and pupils together around standards in such a way that progress in learning by each child is possible. Districts are responsible for seeing that strong instructional programs exist. But the translation of programs into practice is the responsibility of schools and teachers working within them. Both responsibility and accountability for pupils' progress in learning is shared across teachers, administrators, parents, and school board members, but it must be carried individually as well as collectively. More is said about this subject in the closing pages of this chapter.[7]

Given these interdependencies and shared responsibilities for pupils' progress in learning, districts and schools need to create conditions that make it possible for teachers to engage effectively in the kind and level of teaching being asked of them. Time, resources, curricula, child and parent engagement, information systems for managing and reporting pupils' progress in learning, and all the other pieces and parts needed to translate a state's design for standards-based schooling into practice must become the operating culture of each school. Such schools become learning-centered schools and do whatever it takes to help each child reach the standards for learning desired (Lein, Johnson, & Ragland, 1998). This often includes helping teachers learn to think about teaching and learning from a standards perspective or developing the knowledge and skills needed to translate this perspective into practice. It may include the reassignment or dismissal of a teacher not able to do so.

Pupils' learning is what counts in a standards orientation to schooling. If the transformation of a workforce is needed to help children succeed in their learning, then the transformation of a workforce it shall be.

Figure 2.4. Teaching in a Standards-Based School: A System Perspective


Engagement of parents and members of the broader community in the enhancement of pupils' learning
Content and performance standards clearly designated on a program-by-program basis
Continuous program review and evaluation
Progress in learning reviewed and program improvement plan refined if needed
Pupil performance expectations
Continuous improvement of instruction and instructional programs that facilitate learning
Program improvement plans implemented
Learning gains and accomplishments
Program improvement planning
Information management services support the tracking and reporting of pupils' progress toward standards for learning
School cultures and systemwide services support pupils' learning to high standards

These broader dimensions of teaching in a standards-based school are as difficult to depict graphically as the macro dimensions of a classroom, but the schematic appearing as Figure 2.4 attempts to show how they add to the micro and macro orientations discussed previously. The proficiencies to be demonstrated by teachers in Oregon for a continuing license to teach (see Figure 1.3) illustrate what the systemic orientation of standards-based schooling means for the preparation and licensing of teachers.

TRANSLATING THE REALITIES OF STANDARDS-BASED TEACHING AND LEARNING INTO TEACHER WORK SAMPLE DESIGN

To what extent do these realities of teacher work in standards-based schools need to be translated into the design of TWSs? Assuming the state where teachers are being prepared and licensed has adopted a standards orientation to schooling, the answer is "as fully as possible."

How this actually is to be done, however, and what the specifics of focus and content are to be, depends on a host of particulars. Specifics depend, for example, on whether teacher work sampling is to inform initial or advanced licensing decisions and, in the case of an initial license, the degree of opportunities candidates have for full-time teaching within their practicum experiences. If teacher candidates are limited to a term or semester of student teaching with an opportunity for full-responsibility teaching limited even further, there simply will not be time for many of the more vexing and demanding features of standards-based teaching and learning to be confronted realistically in the work sampling process. If teacher candidates engage in a year-long internship, however, or are partnered with a mentor teacher in a professional development school for an even longer period of time, then essentially all the significant realities of a standards orientation to schooling can be incorporated into work-sample design. Specifics of content and focus within the design, of course, depend on the elements of a state's design for its schools.

Regardless of the particulars of TWSM design, it would seem essential for teacher preparation institutions in states that have embraced a standards orientation to schooling to help prospective teachers fully understand what this orientation means to life in a classroom and give them the knowledge and skills needed to function accordingly. At the heart of any such design for schools is the commitment to high standards for learning, the alignment of curriculum and assessment with those standards, and the assumption that teachers are able to help all children reach the standards for learning desired. TWSM provides a vehicle through which the abstractions of standards-based teaching and learning can be translated into practice and, under appropriate conditions of design, a means for assessing whether a prospective teacher can in fact help all pupils progress toward the high standards for learning that states and communities increasingly expect of children.

PUPIL PROGRESS IN LEARNING: TEACHER RESPONSIBILITY, ACCOUNTABILITY, AND REALITY[a]

The issue of accountability for pupils' learning is increasingly at the center of policy debates in legislative chambers and governors' offices throughout the nation. As states implement their standards-based design for schools and find that few students meet the standards that have been established, questions immediately arise as to why. Who should be held responsible? And how is pupils' performance to be improved? It does not take long in this environment for teachers to be seen as at the heart of the matter and for the preparation and licensing of teachers to be a key element in improving the situation.

As indicated in chapter 1, TWSM provides teachers and teacher educators a viable means of responding to such inquiries. It systematically connects teaching and learning; it anchors, if there is reason to do so, to state or local standards for learning; it provides evidence of a teacher's ability to help pupils progress toward those standards; and it provides at least a modest level of assurance that teachers have the knowledge and skills needed to function in a school system where expectations for learning are high and explicit. When graduates of a teacher preparation program reflect these characteristics, a teacher education faculty is viewed as part of the solution rather than part of the problem.

Teachers' responsibility for pupils' learning, however, is a concept that extends far beyond and far deeper than its reflection in a teacher work sample. The view that teachers are responsible for and should be held accountable for pupils' progress in learning has solid support in the terms and definitions that make up our language pertaining to schools, teaching, and learning. *Webster's New World Dictionary* (1995) is unambiguous in this regard:

Educate: Develop the knowledge, skill, or character of, especially by formal schooling; teach
School: A place or institution, with its buildings, etc., for teaching and learning
Teach: Show or help (a person) to learn (how) to do something; to provide with knowledge, insight, etc.; *vt* to give lessons or instruction
Teacher: One who teaches, especially as a profession
Tutor: A private teacher

From this perspective, it is not enough for teachers and school administrators simply to create the conditions they presume are needed for children to accomplish the goals for learning that are valued by a particular community at a particular time. Nor is it enough for teachers to be knowledgeable in the disciplines they are teaching or to employ teaching practices that have been demonstrated through research to contribute to pupils' learning. Teachers need to be sure that what they know and do in fact leads to the learning outcomes desired and, if it does not, modify it until it does. This is what a physician or a group of physicians in a clinic does for a patient who does not respond to a first medication or operation. A teacher or a school should not give up on a child any more than a physician or clinic should give up on a patient. Any less constitutes a breaking of public trust and the likely response of viewing the profession as weak or failing.

How does the issue of accountability fit within this conception of the professional responsibilities of teachers? Closely. Again from *Webster's New World Dictionary:*

Accountable: Responsible; liable; explainable
Answer: Reply; to be sufficient; to be responsible or liable (to a person for)
Responsible: Expected or obliged to account (for); answerable (to); involving obligation or duties; the cause of something
Obligation: An obliging or being obligated; a binding contract, promise, responsibility, etc.
Oblige: Compel by moral, legal, or physical force

So, as far as the formalities of our language are concerned, accountability is an accompaniment of responsibility and inseparable from it.

In actually applying the concept of accountability, however, the caveat of *within one's power to influence or control* is almost always added. When this conditional interpretation of accountability has been applied to education, it has given both teachers and administrators room to sidestep increasingly strong demands for results. Everyone engaged in the educational enterprise can point to children who come to school ill prepared to learn, who choose not to engage seriously in the pursuit of learning, or who have parents unwilling or unable to assist their child in the tasks of school-based learning. In many cases, an argument also can be made that there are too many pupils in classrooms, too few instructional resources, or too many learners with serious emotional problems and other educationally handicapping conditions for effective teaching and learning to occur.

The ultimate argument, of course, is that in the end it is the child who must do the learning. Teachers and administrators can only create conditions that invite and help children learn. A recent commentary in *Education Week*, "Teaching Those Who Don't Want to Learn," poignantly portrays the heartbreak and frustration this reality represents for teachers:

> Because this is middle school, I know that these kids have had seven or eight years of academic experience already, half of their lifetime to date. The experience they've acquired in school so far has proved to most of them that the limitations they live with are powerful enough to keep them forever in the dark, and forbidding enough to make them seek the shadows. Many of these students prefer to be invisible, rather than to create a meaningful, purposeful life. After seven or eight years of failure in

> the biggest institution they know, what can make a crack, a dent, in the hopelessness? (Kalinowski, 1998, p. 44)

And, the author asks, "When all students want to do is get the negative attention that disruption and acting out can give them, how do I teach?" (p. 44).

Parents and policy makers are not unmindful of these realities. Both groups usually hold a broad band of understanding and tolerance for their impact on the work of teachers and others in our schools. But mounting evidence as to the impact of effective and ineffective teachers on school-based learning (Jordan, Mendro, & Weerasinghe, 1997; Sanders & Rivers, 1998) and the growing demand for evidence of value added as a consequence of schooling (Olson, 1998) place limits on understanding and tolerance for failure.[9]

The institution of schooling and the accomplishments of teachers are simply too important to the individual and common good to permit them to fail in their primary mission without consequence. When the enormous outlay of public funds is added to the vital interests of families, communities, states, and the nation as a whole, it would be unconscionable *not* to demand a reasonable and defensible level of accountability in return for the public's investment and trust. But there is the rub. Because of the conditional and collective nature of accountability, it is around the meaning of "reasonable and defensible" where strong disagreements can occur.

What should a reasonable and defensible standard of performance be when addressing the issue of teachers' accountability for pupils' learning in the public schools? How much progress in learning, in what proportion of pupils, in what proportion of subject areas taught, should constitute an acceptable standard of performance? Should standards of performance be the same for all teachers, or should they vary by context (e.g., 35 versus 20 students in a classroom, number of ESL or IEP or emotionally disturbed students in a class)? By years of teaching experience? By kind and quality of instructional resources? Because school-based learning over an extended period of time is under the collective influence of a school's faculty, how is individual accountability to follow? Is it sufficient to extend the accountability equation agreed to for individual teachers to a school faculty as a whole? To a school principal? To a superintendent and members of a local board of education? And how is the accountability equation to extend to parents, communities, and state policy boards or legislative committees?

While there may never be totally satisfactory answers to these questions, attempting to provide a full range of answers is beyond the scope of this chapter. Nevertheless, accountability at any level should mean at least a forthright, accurate, and detailed reporting of learning accomplishments on the part of children and the rate of progress made in this regard. Given the conditional and collective nature of school-based learning, the progress children make in their learning is as important to know from the perspective of accountability as the level of accomplishment reached. While the level of accomplishment is obviously critical and in the end is what counts most, knowing where pupils started in relation to where they currently stand is essential to knowing whether a teacher or school is performing effectively. A reasonable and defensible definition of accountability requires both.[10]

SUMMARY

The nature of standards-based teaching and learning and their implications for teacher work sample design were the central focus of this chapter. The discussion of these topics was viewed as a natural and necessary extension of the description of teacher work sampling provided in chapter 1, because 49 of the 50 states have elected to shift to a standards-based design for their K-12 schools. The chapter argued that making this shift from a norm-referenced design for schools represents a paradigm change of enormous proportions, particularly at the classroom level, for it essentially transforms the nature of teaching and learning in the public schools as it has been practiced for the past 100 years. The legacies of America's norm-referenced design for schooling that need to be overcome to effectively implement a standards-based design were discussed as a backdrop to the paradigm shift described.

The significance of this shift in the redesign of schools for the redesign of teacher preparation and licensing is obvious, but the specifics of its implications in this regard are not widely understood. Oregon has been engaged in making this translation for more than a decade, and the description of teacher work sampling provided in chapter 1 represents the essential features of the translation under the relatively simplified conditions of instructional unit design and implementation. Attention was given in this chapter to the complexity that needs to be added to this truncated view of standards-based classroom teaching and learning when the realities of multiple pupils' working toward multiple standards in multiple subject areas over extended periods of time—and the expectation that each pupil's progress toward each standard is to be monitored and entered into some usable record keeping form—are added to the picture.

How these realities are to be translated into teacher work sample methodology is a matter necessarily left to teacher education faculties working in the contexts of their own state designs for standards-based schooling and the teacher licensing requirements attending thereto. The chapter argued that these translations do not need to extend far beyond the TWS design outlined in chapter 1 when used for purposes of initial preparation and licensing but that they do need to do so if used for advanced or continuing licensure. The chapter closed with a brief discussion of teachers' accountability for pupils' progress in learning in the context of a standards orientation to schooling.

NOTES

1. This section and the following one have been taken, in abbreviated form, from a working draft of a monograph of the same title (H. D. Schalock, Tell, & Smith, 1997). My coauthors have granted permission to use our joint work in this manner.
2. Eighty-two shifts of this nature have been identified as part of Oregon's design for standards-based schools (H. D. Schalock & Cowart, 1993). After completing the study in which these shifts were identified through the collective judgment of the education and teacher education community, two conclusions were drawn: (a) Oregon's new model of schooling represents a paradigm shift of massive proportions in teaching and learning, and (b) to effectively implement this model of schooling will require, for all intents and purposes, a *transformation* in the way the state's teachers and school administrators think about their work. The four documents coming from the study (Cowart, Schalock, Myton, & Reinke, 1993; H. D. Schalock, 1993; H. D. Schalock, 1994; H. D. Schalock & Cowart, 1993) may be purchased at cost through the Academy for Standards-Based Teaching and Learning at Western Oregon University.
3. The knowledge base for understanding the nature of learning in standards-based schools draws from the following literatures:
    - Mastery learning: Block, 1971; Block & Burns, 1976; Bloom, 1971; Guskey, 1985, 1995
    - Role of standards and assessment in learning generally: *Assessment in service of learning,* 1987; "The Challenge of Higher Standards," 1993; Herman, Aschbacher, & Winters, 1992; Marzano, 1992; Marzano & Kendall, 1996; Natriello & McDill, 1986; O'Neil, 1991; Stiggins, 1994; Wiggins, 1991
    - Cognitive-mediational and receptive-accrual views of learning: Anderson, 1989a, 1989b; Brooks & Brooks, 1993; Bruer, 1993; Caine & Caine, 1997; Gardner, 1991; Resnick & Klopfer, 1989; Sylwester, 1995; Wang & Palincsar, 1989; Wittrock, 1986
    - Restructuring schools for high performance: Costa & Kallick, 1996; Darling-Hammond, 1996; Meier, 1995; Powell, Farrar, & Cohen, 1985; Schwarz & Cavener, 1994; Sizer, 1984; Slavin, 1994; Slavin, Karweit, & Madden, 1989
    - Restructuring schools for transition to adulthood and workforce preparation: Commission on the Skills of the American Workforce, 1990; Fiske, 1991; Marshall & Tucker, 1992; Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills, 1991
    - School organization, including the concept of full inclusion: Bonstingl, 1992; Elkind, 1989; Elkins, 1987; Elmore, Peterson, & McCarthey, 1996; Kohn, 1996; National Commission on Teaching & America's Future, 1996; Pavan, 1992; Praivat, 1992; Schaps & Soloman, 1990; Stainback & Stainback, 1984; Wang, Reynolds, & Walberg, 1988; Wang, Walberg, & Reynolds, 1992

- Students' motivation in the context of all the above: J. Anderson, 1990; Chance, 1992; Clifford, 1990; Covington, 1992; Kellaghan, Madaus, & Raczek, 1996; Powell, 1996; Tomlinson, 1993; Wang & Palincsar, 1989

4. As in the case of the conditions of learning described previously, the following descriptions of teacher practice also need to be recognized as a work in progress, though the knowledge base on which they rest is firmer. In addition to relying on essentially the same bodies of literature referred to in note 3, the descriptions also reflect what has been learned through a long history of work with teachers and teacher educators engaged in this kind of teaching in Oregon.

   Particularly helpful in this regard has been work with the teacher education faculties at Western Oregon University; work with the Oregon Teacher Standards and Practices Commission as it has continuously recrafted policies over the past 20 years to align standards for teacher preparation and licensure with changing standards for schools; work with a three-county coalition of schools, education service districts, and institutions of higher education (the Valley Education Consortium) and the State Department of Education during this same period of time to implement a precursor to Oregon's current design for standards-based schooling; and, most recently, work with high school teachers and their college counterparts in the Proficiency-Based Admission Standards System projects operated in the chancellor's office of the Oregon State System of Higher Education. These action research projects headed by David Conley and Christine Tell are among the first in the nation to focus on what teachers need to know and be able to do to foster standards-based learning in students.

   We acknowledge our great dependence on these several lines of work in furthering our understanding of standards-based teaching and learning. It needs to be noted, however, that large bodies of literature not cited thus far remain to be integrated into all the above. They include literatures pertaining to the effects of particular instructional methods on learning (Brophy & Good, 1986; Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986), teaching and learning in particular subject areas (Cawelti, 1995; Murray, 1996; Wittrock, 1986), teacher thinking and decision making (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Cohen, McLaughlin, & Talbert, 1993; Shulman, 1987), and teacher and school productivity generally (Walberg, 1980, 1984, 1986; Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1993).

5. This section of the chapter elaborates on these three frames of reference as outlined initially in H. D. Schalock et al., 1997.

6. Technology plays multiple roles in this conception of teaching and learning. In addition to its use by learners in the solution of complex, multistep problems and projects, it is used by both pupils and teachers to track and report progress toward the accomplishment of standards for learning. Pupils need to be able to monitor and report their own progress to keep track of what they have done and what they have yet to do in relation to the

several standards they are working toward at a particular point in time. Teachers also need to monitor and be able to report the learning progress of each of their charges in relation to the benchmarked standards that lie immediately ahead. Sophisticated applications of new technology serve both pupil and teacher needs in this regard. Electronic portfolios, transcripts, and continuous progress record-keeping systems are a necessary feature of a standards orientation to schooling.

7. In Oregon, each local school district is responsible for continuously evaluating the effectiveness of each of its instructional programs in terms of the learning gains and accomplishments of pupils and then improving any program that is less effective than desired in helping children reach the standards for learning desired. This evaluation and improvement process is done on a 2-year cycle; if a plan for the improvement of a particular instructional program does not lead to appreciable progress within that time, the initial plan must be refined and additional efforts at improvement pursued. School site councils consisting of parents, teachers, and a school's principal are responsible for this planning/improvement process in each building, with district staff responsible for supporting and assisting the building-level process whenever needed. District staff also are responsible for linking or integrating building-level plans across a district as a whole. A culture of shared responsibility and accountability for learning permeates this process of evaluation and improvement, running from the classroom to the school to the district and across colleagues as well as parents and students.
8. This discussion draws on two recently published articles (H. D. Schalock, 1998a, 1998b) that address the issue of responsibility and accountability for pupils' progress in learning in greater detail.
9. The value-added argument as described by Olson (1998) carries the seeds of both sensibility and deception. Looking at the learning progress made in a school over a meaningful period of time relative to the progress of like schools is a fair and sensible thing to do. It also can be misleading if progress is all that is ever monitored. The issue of performance levels attained is equally critical, and in the end, far more critical because in the real world it is the level of accomplishment that ultimately counts. In the view of accountability argued here, it is important to have both measures of progress and accomplishment in relation to standards.
10. Reporting on progress made and level of learning achieved by pupils in a school requires additional decisions. For example, what kind of information about achievement is to be reported, and what unit of analysis is to be used to report it? Are scores on a state or commercially developed achievement test administered once a year by a state department of education or a school district the information to be reported, or are they a summing of several lines of evidence as to the level, quality, and growth in learning that has occurred from one reporting period to another? Should such information be reported as an average score for all children taking a particular examination at a particular grade level or as gain scores for selected groups of

pupils so enrolled, for example, third-grade students who have English as a second language or learners who come from low-income families or who share a common ethnic background? Beyond these basic decisions, a conditional definition of accountability requires that decisions also be made around two particularly divisive and difficult questions: What level? How much progress in learning is good enough?

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CHAPTER 3

Assessing Teacher Work Samples

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Goals for Teacher Educators

1. Understand how a teacher work sample fits together as a complex, authentic, and applied performance task that can be tied to assessment.
2. Understand how teacher work samples are assessed analytically and holistically.
3. Have confidence in the information coming from the measures.
4. Have a sound foundation for exploring the formative and summative uses of the information generated through teacher work sample methodology.

This chapter begins to build the connections between instructional processes of Western's teacher education program, the processes and products associated with student teaching, and the development of a teacher work sample (TWS). It also discusses the assessment of individual components of a TWS and the more holistic assessment of its quality. Evidence of the validity and reliability of the measures is presented as well. In addition, the use of TWS assessments for formative and summative evaluation is introduced.

The first two chapters of this handbook presented the philosophical and rational arguments for the goodness of teacher work sample methodology (TWSM) as both an instructional tool and a quality assurance vehicle. This chapter explores the methodology from the perspective of assessment and the quality of the measures brought to bear on both the processes and products associated with the methodology.

This chapter presents and discusses the assessment of TWSs in the broader context of the levels and uses of assessment information. A framework for thinking about the levels and uses of TWS assessment information is shown in Table 3.1. Most of this chapter is devoted to addressing the analytic level of assessment, as it is the more complex of the two levels. Because section II addresses many issues surrounding the use of assessment information for instructional purposes, this chapter speaks more to the summative, decision-making uses of assessment information coming from TWSs.

As conceived here, TWSM is deeply imbedded in teacher preparation programs. This imbeddedness involves the outcomes sought by the program and the as-

Table 3.1. Levels and Uses of Teacher Work Sample Assessments

Level of use	**Level of assessment decisions**	
	Analytic: pieces and parts	Holistic: overall
Formative: instructional	Providing feedback to students on their development of pieces and parts that make up a work sample and reflect different aspects of teaching practice makes sense and is valuable.	Providing feedback on the overall quality of a work sample has little instructional utility.
Summative: decision making	Making decisions, such as recommendations for licensure, based in part on evidence around many important aspects of teaching is useful for clinical decision making but can be cumbersome.	Making decisions, such as recommendations for licensure, based in part on holistic judgments is also useful for clinical decision making and is much less cumbersome.

sessment and evaluation philosophy of the program (see box on opposite page for a summary of the assessment and evaluation philosophy at Western). The implementation of the TWS measurement methodology, then, is appropriate not only for assessing individual prospective teachers but also for evaluating the quality and effectiveness of programs.

PROCESSES AND PRODUCTS OF TWSM

As a vehicle for teacher preparation, TWSM is intended to give prospective teachers experience in the following skills:

1. Designating learning outcomes to be accomplished through a 2- to 5-week unit of instruction.
2. Developing plans for instruction and assessment *aligned* with the outcomes desired.
3. Implementing these plans.
4. Collecting, interpreting, and reflecting on evidence of pupils' progress toward attaining outcomes.

Essentially, TWSM serves as a framework for teachers to think about, learn about, practice, and document their proficiency around several dimensions in teaching and learning. When used in this way, TWSM is designed to accomplish these goals:

- Focus teachers and teacher educators on pupils' learning.
- Encourage teachers and teacher educators to go beyond the knowledge, skills, and dispositions thought to be needed for teachers to be successful and examine how these enabling conditions can be integrated and applied to foster learning progress for all children.
- Encourage teacher preparation programs to attend to the assessment of pupils' learning; to the integration of curriculum, instruction, and assessment when teaching; and to the interpretation, report, reflection, and use of pupils' learning.

A Philosophy of Assessment and Evaluation

Because the development and assessment of work samples take place in the broader context of a proficiency-based teacher education program, assessment and evaluation of the program becomes an important issue in how it all fits together. At Western, we hold five major beliefs in this area:

1. ***Frequent and diverse*** **assessment opportunities should be present in such a program.**
2. **Performance tasks should be** ***developmental*** **in nature to reflect the growth in proficiency of student teachers as they progress through programs.**
3. **Performance tasks should be designed around** ***actual classroom settings*** **and require that knowledge and skill acquisition be** ***integrated and applied.***
4. **Assessments of student teachers should generate information useful to judge the effectiveness of programs. This is simple** ***alignment.***
5. **Teacher assessment should strive to be as** ***"authentic"*** **as possible.**

As an authentic assessment, TWSM carries with it the aim of ***improving instruction and learning*** **that is common to this movement (Gearhart & Herman, 1995; Gitomer, 1993; Herman, Aschbacher, & Winters, 1992; Wiggins, 1988, 1989, 1992, 1993; Wolf, 1993; Wolf, Bixby, Glenn, & Gardner, 1991).**

- Provide teachers a developmentally appropriate, conceptual, and procedural foundation to function effectively in today's schools.

As a process, the methodology provides a teacher with the means to systematically plan a unit of instruction, consider the actual setting (context) in which that lesson will be delivered, and develop assessments to monitor pupil progress through the unit. Most, if not all, teachers do these steps "unconsciously." But not all teachers may take into account all the factors that can affect pupils' performance when they plan instructional units. The process of TWSM, as used at Western, provides the opportunity for teachers to develop and practice the overt consideration of these stages or aspects of instructional practice.

TWSM also allows for an applied, complex, and authentic assessment of how well prospective teachers can do these things in the following ways. First, it is *real* because the performance assessment tasks prospective teachers learn to perform reflect real-life teaching. Second, it is *natural* because the performance assessment tasks occur in classrooms with real pupils. Third, it is *meaningful* because the performance assessment tasks reflect important aspects of teaching. Finally, it is *helpful* because the assessments cause prospective teachers to explore their own practice by asking them to consider and address the following questions when planning, implementing, and documenting their work on an instructional unit through TWS:

- What are the learning goals I want my pupils to accomplish through this unit of work and why?
- What activities and instructional methodologies are appropriate/necessary for *these* children to achieve *these* goals?

- What resources and how much time do I need to implement these activities/methodologies? During the unit, what changes do I need to make to ensure success for all the children?
- What assessment activities and methodologies are appropriate for these children and these goals when using these instructional methodologies?
- How successful was I at helping my pupils achieve the learning goals desired? What went right? What went wrong? Why?

While these questions are unsophisticated on the surface, we have found them unusually powerful in helping prospective teachers think about the art and science of teaching.

CONNECTIONS

At Western we have found the preceding questions to be at the core of TWSM and useful in spotlighting the processes and products associated with developing a TWS. By focusing on these questions, TWSM allows prospective teachers to use complex, "authentic," and applied performance approaches to assessment that can be tailored to fit the particular learning goals and styles of a teacher working with a particular group of pupils in a particular classroom, school, and community.

Fundamentally, addressing these questions in the context of the student teaching or practicum experiences necessarily requires prospective teachers to undertake a number of connected steps as they practice their craft. We simply ask prospective teachers to document these steps using a prescribed format to create a product called a teacher work sample. In addition to this documentation by the prospective teacher, we also conduct formal and informal observations of teaching in the work sample unit and combine this evidence of actual practice with the documentation that the prospective teacher provides. In this way we are able to develop a comprehensive picture of the teacher's work. Table 3.2 shows these connections among the following elements:

1. The questions underlying TWSM
2. The steps or processes teachers go through in developing and implementing a unit of instruction to address these questions
3. The products that result from documenting this work and observations of practice in the classroom
4. The criteria that result in a TWS

A typical table of contents for a TWS is shown in Figure 3.1.

LEVELS OF ASSESSMENT AND THEIR MEASURES

Having provided this overview of the processes and products of TWSM—its technology—we now turn to how we assess TWSs. We start with the individual pieces and parts of the work sample—its various components as presented in Table 3.2, and then turn to the more global assessments of a TWS that address the underlying foci of the methodology: context, adaptation, and alignment.

Table 3.2. Processes and Products of TWSM

PROCESSES		PRODUCTS	
Questions underlying TWSM process	**Steps involved in addressing questions**	**Criteria**	**Products documenting processes**
What are the learning outcomes I want my pupils to accomplish?	Define the sample of teaching and learning to be described. Identify the learning outcomes to be accomplished in the work to be sampled.	A set of two to three integrated outcomes and their corresponding objectives, some of which are higher order and cover multiple subject matters, usually from more than one domain.	Description of and rationale for outcomes to be accomplished.
What activities and instructional methodologies are appropriate/necessary for these children to achieve these outcomes?	Describe the context in which teaching and learning are to occur. Assess the status of pupils prior to instruction with respect to the postinstruction outcomes to be accomplished.	Context rated in terms of levels of demand and support. Assessments of pupils' learning judged in terms of alignment with outcomes, clarity and understanding, reliability, feasibility, variety, and developmental appropriateness.	Description of the teaching/learning context. Preassessment developed and used to measure pupils' progress. Preinstruction data.
What resources and how much time do I need to implement these activities and methodologies?	Align instruction and assessment through development of instructional and assessment plans with learning outcomes to be accomplished. Adapt outcomes desired and related plans for instruction and assessment to accommodate the demands of the teaching/learning context.	Instructional plans rated in terms of their appropriateness, usefulness, and feasibility.	Instructional plans.
As I proceed through this unit, what changes do I need to make to ensure success for all pupils?	Implement planned instruction and make adaptations as needed.	Required Oregon Teacher Standards and Practices competencies.	Completed competency ratings.
What assessment activities/methodologies are appropriate for these children and these outcomes when using these instructional methodologies?	Assess the accomplishments of learners and calculate the growth in learning achieved for each pupil.	Assessments of pupils' learning judged in terms of alignment with outcomes, clarity and understanding, reliability, feasibility, variety, and developmental appropriateness.	Postassessment developed and used to measure pupils' progress. Postinstruction data. Evidence of pupils' learning.
How successful was I at helping my pupils achieve the learning outcomes desired? What went right? What went wrong? Why? What knowledge, skills, or dispositions do I need to develop/acquire?	Summarize, interpret, and reflect on pupils' growth in learning.	Reflective product (essay) rated on analysis of data, interpretation of data, use of data, and professional growth.	Interpretation and reflection on the success of the teaching/learning unit, oriented toward what this means for future practice and professional development.

Figure 3.1. Typical Table of Contents for a TWS

Contents

Page

Daily Schedule of Topics and Assignments ....
Concept Mapping ....
Setting ....
Unit Goals and Related Standards ....
Rationale ....
Objectives ....
Lesson Plans ....
Pre- and Postassessment Data ....
Narrative Data Interpretation ....
Reflective Essay ....
Appendixes ....

Assessing Individual Components of a TWS (Analytic Assessment)

Using a set of detailed scoring guides, supervising teacher education faculty can assess each component or product of the TWS. Each measure is designed to require little inference on the part of raters yet allows for both objective ratings and professional judgment. Moreover, each measure and the text around it are designed to be instructional in nature for prospective teachers. That is, they provide clear, concise guidelines for good practice as well as performance expectations for prospective teachers.

In their current form, TWS measures address seven *product* domains comprising 20 criteria and five *process* domains comprising 39 criteria. The domains assessed include the following elements:

- Teaching/learning *outcomes* (product)
- Teaching/learning *context*, including *preassessments* (product)
- Instructional plans (product)
- Instructional implementation (process)
- Postassessments (product)
- Pupil learning displays (product)
- Interpretation of student results (product)
- Reflection on success of the unit (product)

A summary of criteria is shown in Table 3.3.

We need to emphasize again that, in addition to appraising work sample products, both the cooperating teacher and college supervisor rate the student teacher's implementation of the work sample unit through multiple observations of the prospective teacher's practice. The result is ratings on five dimensions:

1. Planning instruction
2. Establishing a classroom climate conducive to learning
3. Engaging pupils in planned learning activities

Table 3.3. Summary Work Sample Rating/Teacher Profile

Domain	Criteria	Rating
A.	**Teaching/learning outcomes**	
1.1.	Time (please indicate number of weeks or instructional equivalent)	
1.2.	Number (please indicate number of outcomes addressed)	
1.3.	Content area (please indicate main content areas addressed)	
1.4.	Kind	
1.5.	Complexity	
1.6.	Clarity	
1.7.	Appropriateness	
	Summary Rating	
B.	**Instructional plans**	
2.1.	Usefulness/quality	
	Summary Rating	
C.	**Teaching/learning context**	
3.1.	Demand of the teaching/learning context	
3.2.	Support/assistance provided in the teaching/learning context	
	Summary Rating	
D.	**Assessment**	
4.1.	Alignment with learning outcomes (content/curricular validity)	
4.2.	Clarity/understandability (face validity)	
4.3.	Reliability (evidence for the trustworthiness of data)	
4.4.	Feasibility	
4.5.	Variety (diversity of opportunities to demonstrate learning)	
4.6.	Developmental appropriateness	
	Summary Rating	
E.	**Implementation**	
5.1.	Planning instruction	
5.2.	Establishing a classroom climate conducive to learning	
5.3.	Engaging pupils in planned learning activities	
5.4.	Evaluating, acting upon, and reporting pupils' progress in learning	
5.5.	Exhibiting professional behaviors, ethics, and values	
	Summary Rating	

table continues next page

Table 3.3. (continued)

F.	**Reflection**	
6.1.	Analysis	
6.2.	Synthesis	
Summary Rating		
G.	**Reflection**	
7.1.	Type of reflective writing	
7.2.	Level of reflective sophistication	
Summary Rating		
H.	**Student learning**	
8.1.	Index of pupil growth (IPG)	
8.2.	IPG outcome complexity	
8.3.	IPG outcome complexity assessment quality	
8.4.	IPG outcome complexity assessment quality context	
Summary Rating		
I.	**Broad foci of TWSM**	
9.1.	Exhibits sensitivity to context	
9.2.	Exhibits ability to make adaptations to reflect context	
9.3.	Exhibits ability to align curriculum, instruction, and assessment	
9.4.	Exhibits quality of thought, writing, and presentation	
Overall Summary Rating of Performance		

4. Evaluating and acting on pupil learning
5. Exhibiting professionalism

Together, product and implementation ratings make up the prospective teacher's profile of work sample performance and effectiveness. Scoring guides have been developed for each of the entries in Table 3.3 (Ayres et al., 1996). As an example, the scoring guide for assessing the criterion related to "face validity" within the domain of "assessment" is shown in Table 3.4.

As an aid to instruction and for feedback to prospective teachers, these detailed scoring guides provide a useful and needed level of detail. At the level of summative evaluation for the quality of the work sample, however, they may be viewed as cumbersome. To address this issue of efficiency in scoring TWSs, a summary form has been developed that synthesizes the scoring guides into a two-page form. In addition to assessing the teaching practices documented through the work sample, this summary form also addresses several other components of the work sample, including a narrative context description, the ra-

Table 3.4. Clarity and Understandability of Assessment (Face Validity) Rationale

One of the commonplaces of good-quality assessments is that tasks and/or questions should be clear and understandable, especially to the pupils being assessed; this criterion applies equally to paper-and-pencil and performance or portfolio-type assessments. First, the assessment instructions and directions for pupils taking the assessment should be clearly spelled out and understandable. Second, assessment items (questions) or tasks must be clear and free from language that will be confusing or not easily understood by pupils. Third, there should be a clear and understandable scoring procedure included with the assessment, communicated to and understood by learners and assessors.

Circle the most appropriate rating for each indicator; add to arrive at a summary rating.

Indicators	0	1	2
Directions 0 1 2	Directions for taking the assessment are not provided.	Directions are provided but are unclear or incomplete.	Directions are provided and are clear and complete.
Questions 0 1 2	Most (more than 75%) questions and/or tasks are unclear or confusing.	About half the questions and/or tasks are unclear or confusing.	Most (more than 75%) questions and tasks are clear and free from ambiguous language.
Scoring 0 1 2	Scoring procedures/ guide are not included.	Scoring procedures/guide are provided but are unclear or incomplete.	Scoring procedures/guide are provided and are clear and complete.
Summary rating: (low clarity) ≤1 2 3 4 5 6 (high clarity)			

tionale for the unit, and appended materials. An overall summary rating by the supervisor(s), the last row in Table 3.5, is also called for, allowing for a holistic judgment as to how well the work sample holds together as a cohesive document, reflecting issues of context, diversity, and alignment. The 6-point scale in the summative rating form is used consistent with the Proficiency Assessment system used in the teacher preparation program at Western as well as Oregon's K-12 scoring guides. Each scale has well-developed anchor descriptors reflecting the detailed scoring guides. This connection can be seen in Table 3.4, the scoring guide used to assess face validity. That scoring guide provides detail around the concept of face validity, including clear and understandable directions, assessment items, and scoring procedures. These concepts manifest themselves in the summary form under assessment in the phrase "clear and understandable directions, items, and scoring procedures."

Assessing a TWS More Globally (Holistic Assessment)

The process of TWSM does the following:

1. Heavily emphasizes issues of *alignment* (outcomes to instruction, instruction to assessment, assessment to outcomes)
2. Provides for the consideration of the specific *context* within which the instruction occurs

Table 3.5. Summary Evaluation Form

Work Sample Evaluation

Author: ______________________________ Title: ______________________________

Evaluator: ______________________________ Date: ______________________________

Please rate the work sample on the following dimensions, using the scales provided.

Dimension	1 beginning	2 emerging · 3 developing · 4 maturing · 5 strong	6 exemplary
Description of the setting	Discussion is superficial, with no thought given to implications of context on teaching and learning.	<----------------------------------->	Discussion includes aspects of community, district, school, classroom (including students' current preinstructional status) that can influence teaching and learning, in terms of both demand and support.
Rationale for work sample	Rationale for the work sample unit is weak, not clearly stated, and not supported.	<----------------------------------->	Rationale includes discussion of goals, objectives, assessment, and instruction and refers to students' previous experiences, developmental levels, and preinstructional status as well as state, district, and community expectations (as appropriate).
Unit goals and objectives	Unit goals and objectives are stated vaguely, are not developmentally appropriate, would not be clear to other teachers, are not aligned with state or district content standards, and are not appropriate for current performance levels of pupils.	<----------------------------------->	Unit goals and objectives are clearly stated, developmentally appropriate, consistent with state and district content standards, and appropriate for current performance levels of pupils and would be understandable to other teachers.
Plans and materials	Instructional activities are not aligned with unit goals and are not consistent with research on how pupils learn, and activities and materials do not challenge all pupils.	<----------------------------------->	Instructional activities are aligned with unit goals and are consistent with research on how pupils learn, and instructional activities and materials challenge (directly or through adaptations or accommodations) all pupils.
Assessment	Assessments are not aligned with unit goals; do not have clear and understandable directions, items, and scoring procedures; do not have characteristics likely to enhance reliability; are difficult to administer and score; show no variety; and are not developmentally appropriate for pupils taught.	<----------------------------------->	Assessments are clearly aligned with unit goals; have clear and understandable directions, items, and scoring procedures; evidence characteristics likely to enhance reliability; are feasible to administer and score; show diversity; and are developmentally appropriate for pupils taught.

Table 3.5. (continued)

Dimension	1 beginning	2 emerging	3 developing	4 maturing	5 strong	6 exemplary
Analysis of pupils' progress	Analysis is not grounded in assessment results, presents only the whole class's performance, does not describe or examine formal and informal assessment results, and adds nothing to the reader's understanding of the assessment results presented.	<----------------------------------->				Analysis is grounded in assessment results, examines the performance of different groups and individual pupils, describes and examines formal and informal assessment results, and enhances the reader's understanding of the assessment results presented.
Evaluative essay	The essay makes no mention of the effects of the teaching/learning context on learning results, does not blend formal and informal assessment results, provides conclusions that are inconsistent with the results reported, fails to tie assessment results to the stated goals of the unit, and does not summarize results.	<----------------------------------->				The essay clarifies the effects of the teaching/learning context on learning results, brings together formal and informal assessments for a fuller picture of learning, provides conclusions that are consistent with the results reported, ties assessment results to the stated goals of the unit, and provides a useful summary of learning.
Reflective essay	The essay is not reflective but instead describes events and makes no attempt to provide reasons or justification for events. It is mostly concerned with efficiency and effectiveness of means to themselves.	<----------------------------------->				The essay demonstrates a "stepping back" from events or actions. It is analytical and/or integrative of factors, findings, and perspectives and may recognize inconsistencies. It goes beyond technical and practical emphasis on ends and means to also bring up moral and ethical criteria and make judgments about whether practice is equitable, just, and respectful of others.
Appendixes and references	Missing	<----------------------------------->				Appendices and references are appropriate, helpful, and complete and round out the work sample.

Summary rating: As a holistic reaction to this teacher work sample, how well does this document hold together as a cohesive documentation of a teacher's work and reflection, and how well does this document attend to the issues of context, diversity, and alignment?

Summary rating	The document is fragmented and poorly written and does not attend to issues of context, diversity, and alignment.	<----------------------------------->				The document is cohesive and well written and attends to issues of context, diversity, and alignment.

3. Recognizes and requires that a *diversity* of instructional and assessment strategies be employed (often directly related to the contextual factors present in the prospective teacher's setting)

To accurately portray pupils' learning as a result of instruction, aligning all aspects of the instructional unit is critical. Instructional activities must be aligned with the outcomes sought: What is presented to and asked of the children must be sufficiently related to the outcomes, and reasonable opportunity must be available for pupils to attain those outcomes. Similarly, any assessments developed to monitor pupils' progress while instruction is being presented (formative assessments) or to evaluate pupils' progress at the conclusion of the instructional unit (summative assessments) must be sufficiently related to the actual content of instruction; that is, children must have a fair opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned and can do.

Plain, also, is that the contexts within which prospective teachers present instruction vary enormously. Pupil variables are of considerable range and include class size, abilities, interests, motivation, and presence and degree of special needs. School and community variables all can have a vast influence on teachers' abilities to bring about "learning" in the pupils they instruct. Importantly, teachers must consider these contextual factors when planning their instructional units and when planning what types of adaptations and or modifications are needed for their instructional units to fit the specific context in which they will be delivered. Again, many teachers do so unconsciously; our preference is that this consideration be done overtly and consciously, given the impact these contextual variables can have on both instruction and pupils' performance.

Finally, not all children learn in the same way. Any classroom contains children with a variety of learning aptitudes, styles, and needs. In considering the contextual variables present in classrooms, teachers must also consider how those variables will affect the instruction they plan to present and what adaptations and/or modifications might be necessary to provide a fair opportunity for all children to attain the objectives specified. So, too, must the prospective teachers consider how to assess pupils' progress; not all children are proficient at all types of assessments. Some are skilled at select-response, objective measures; others may be more adept demonstrating what they have learned through some type of performance task. Some children may be unable to demonstrate what they have learned when asked to do so on a written assessment, but they may be able to demonstrate that they have in fact attained the unit's objectives if another means of assessment is provided. In TWSM, prospective teachers, as they review and consider the specific context in which the unit will be delivered, are in a position to think about how to vary both instruction and assessment to provide a fair opportunity for all pupils.

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These three underlying foci of TWSM and the overall quality of thought, writing, and presentation make up the criteria for the more holistic evaluation of the teacher work sample.

QUALITY OF THE MEASURES[1]

Claims

We claim that combining both the process and product aspects of TWSM represents an appropriate, adequate, and valid performance task for beginning professionals to which valid and reliable measures of teachers' performance can be applied. The following nine points summarize this claim:

1. TWSM provides evidence of learning gains by pupils taught as the sine qua non of a teacher's effectiveness and thus can be viewed as an advance in enhancing professional standards and practice (McConney, Schalock, & Schalock, 1997; H. D. Schalock, Schalock, Cowart, & Myton, 1993; H. D. Schalock, Schalock, & Myton, 1998).
2. TWSM yields measures of pupils' learning that are close to a teacher's work and thus are meaningfully and defensibly reflective of a teacher's impact on pupils' progress in learning (McConney et al., 1997).
3. TWSM includes information about the context in which teachers and pupils work and thus provides a fairer and more realistic picture of the effectiveness of a prospective teacher than if such information were not included (H. D. Schalock, Schalock, & Girod, 1997; M. Schalock, Cowart, & Staebler, 1993).
4. TWSM involves the performance and appraisal of teaching tasks that are far more complex, comprehensive, and demanding than that required of most student teachers (Koziol, Minnick, & Sherman, 1996) and thus can be viewed as an advance in teacher education standards and practice.
5. TWSM is grounded in both state and national policy pertaining to education for the 21st century (McConney, Schalock, & Schalock, 1998), including standards-based schools, and thus is viewed as appropriate by teachers, administrators, and the public at large (H. D. Schalock & Cowart, 1993).
6. TWSM is grounded in both theory and research pertaining to teacher effectiveness (H. D. Schalock et al., 1997).
7. Because of all these reasons, TWSM carries strong face and job (professional) validity (McConney et al., 1997).
8. Because of all these reasons, TWSM carries potentially strong external validity (Shulman, 1970).
9. Because of all these reasons and the emerging empirical base lending support to our work that has been outlined here, we believe that TWSM carries promising construct and consequential validity as well (Messick, 1995).

We now provide the evidence to support these claims.

Evidence Supporting Claims[2]

Because TWSM is designed as an extended, authentic performance task centered on pupils' learning as reported by teachers and the results of TWS are used for a variety of purposes—some formative, some summative, some high stakes, and some not—how, then, do we judge the goodness of TWSM measures? We have proceeded with the evaluation of TWSM measures in three ways: (a) by comparison with accepted criteria for authentic assessments; (b) by comparison with accepted criteria for quality assessments; and (c) by statistical analysis of results to determine whether progress in pupils' learning as measured by prospective teachers in a 2- to 5-week unit of study can indeed be explained through the use of TWS measures and variables.

1. *Criteria for authentic assessments.* This line of evidence centers on the methodology's alignment with what is meant by authentic assessment in the context of teaching and teacher education. We contend, as does Telliz (1996), that the authentic assessment of emerging teachers should

1. Reflect real-life teaching.
2. Occur in the classroom.
3. Reflect important aspects of teaching.
4. Be helpful for teachers exploring their own practice.

TWSM stacks up well in comparison with these criteria for authentic assessment in teacher education. As described previously, the method requires teachers to ask just these kinds of questions in the development, implementation, and documentation of their TWS.

We also judge TWS measures to be notable in comparison with one other important criterion. The measures were developed by faculty at Western and, as a result, closely align with and reflect the substance of the institution's proficiency-based teacher education programs (face and content validity), which in turn closely align with the state's design for standards-based schools.

2. *Criteria for quality assessments.* The second line of evidence with regard to the goodness of TWSM compares the measures with criteria for quality assessments that experts in the field of psychometrics provide. In this analysis, we have looked at TWS measures using a number of such listings and find a generally positive picture. We know, for instance, that agreement between college and school supervisor ratings provided around a prospective teacher's performance in the classroom is good (ranging from 81 to 98% agreement). Furthermore, preliminary (obtained before systematic training) interrater reliability coefficients among supervising faculty for the various other work sample measures are as high as .91 for elementary and .88 for secondary, with corresponding levels of agreement as high as 87%.

Our evidence for reliability and validity of TWSM and its associated measures is compiled and summarized in Table 3.6. We have spent considerable effort

Table 3.6. An Overview of Evidence Collected on the Reliability and Validity of Teacher Work Sample Methodology

Issue	**Level of resolution (1 = awareness, 2 = engagement, 3 = partial resolution, 4 = resolution)**
RELIABILITY	
Interrater reliability: the consistency of work sample scoring across scorers. Asks the question Is rating of work sample performance (implementation) and products consistent among faculty?	**2** *Fall '91/Spring '96:* Level of agreement between college and school supervisor ratings provided around a student teacher's work sample implementation (performance in the classroom) is good (ranging from 81 to 98% agreement). *Fall '96/Spring '97:* College of Education and Teacher Effectiveness Project (TEP) faculty collaborate in developing TWS product measures. *Spring '97:* All supervising faculty score illustrative work samples and hold extensive discussions around the meaning of product measures; without explicit training, interrater reliability coefficients ranged between 0.33 and 0.91 (19 to 59% agreement; average r = 0.62) for 20 randomly matched pairs of raters from the secondary faculty and between 0.04 and 0.88 (7 to 87% agreement; average r = 0.59) for 20 randomly matched pairs of raters from the elementary faculty. Five work sample measures were used in this analysis (teaching/learning goals, teaching/learning contexts, instructional plans, assessments, and reflective product). *Fall '97:* The newly revised TWS product measures were incorporated in the redesigned teacher education program; faculty continue to score illustrative work samples to build consensus around meanings of measures. Work sample products are rated by panels of raters in the redesigned program.
VALIDITY	
Face validity: the apparent relevance of the task and the appearance, relevance, and clarity of the scoring guides (rubrics) used to rate task performance and product quality. Asks the question Do the tasks/measures appear relevant, familiar, reasonable, and clear to those who complete them and to others in teacher education?	**4** *Fall '96/Spring '97:* College of Education/TEP faculty collaborate in developing TWS product measures. *Spring '97:* Feedback from practicing Western teacher focus groups indicates that participants generally view the task as reasonable and as "what teachers do" (i.e., relevant). *Spring '97:* Feedback from College of Education supervising faculty on TWS measures that indicates the appearance, clarity, and usefulness of the scoring guides (rubrics) used to rate student teacher performance is good.

table continues next page

Table 3.6. (continued)

Issue	**Level of resolution (1 = awareness, 2 = engagement, 3 = partial resolution, 4 = resolution)**
Content validity: the substance of the task. Asks the question Does the task reflect well the domain of knowledge and skills that make up teaching and the goals and objectives of the teacher education program?	**4** *Fall '96/Spring '97:* College of Education/TEP faculty collaborate in developing TWS measures. *Fall '96/Spring '97:* College of Education faculty and an assessment system development team conduct content analyses of courses in the redesigned program, Teacher Standards and Practices Commission requirements, and Oregon's model of schooling demands. These analyses match course content with designated proficiencies that in turn are matched with "sources of evidence." Work samples are agreed upon as one important source of evidence and reflect well the content and orientation of the redesigned program. *Fall '96/Spring '97:* Match between teacher education program proficiencies (measured by TWSM) and other (accepted) analyses of what teaching involves (e.g., Cotton, 1995; Danielson, 1996; Moir & Gless, 1997; National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 1989; Scriven, 1994) is good.
Construct validity: the set of conceptions and philosophy that undergirds and frames the task. Asks the question Is the task consistent with an articulated philosophy of the purpose of schooling and the role and responsibilities of teachers and learners within that purpose?	**3** *'91-'97:* TWSM has been developed to be consistent with Oregon's design for 21st-century schooling; that is, the method is undergirded by the belief that *all pupils* not severely physically or emotionally disabled are capable of meeting high academic standards and that the work of teachers and pupils is not complete until that is so; the method maintains focus on pupil learning as the central purpose and outcome of teaching. *Fall '96/Spring '97:* Regression analyses provide evidence that work sample measures account for 24.5% (at Grades 3-5) to 59.5% (Grades 6-8) of the variance observed in pupils' learning, with measures of teachers' work (TWSM implementation) accounting for between 12.5% (Grades 3-5) and 40.1% (Grades 6-8) of pupils' learning. Simply, these results support our view that what teachers do has a detectable (measureable) effect on pupils' learning, as reported by teachers.

Table 3.6. (continued)

Issue	**Level of resolution (1 = awareness, 2 = engagement, 3 = partial resolution, 4 = resolution)**
Consequential validity: the potential and actual outcomes of TWSM as an assessment task. Asks the questions What are the consequences for teachers from having experienced TWSM? Are there broader consequences to the development and use of the methodology?	**3** *Spring/Summer '97:* Elementary, secondary, and special education beginning teachers (1994-95 graduates of Western Oregon) convene in focus groups (~10 per group) to discuss their experiences as new teachers, Western teacher education programs, and TWSM. Focus group data indicate that although practicing Western teachers do not continue to produce the documentation the method requires of student teachers, they have internalized TWSM and continue to use parts or all of the method as a conceptual framework for teaching. Many participants also view the work sample requirement as reflecting the high/rigorous standards of teacher preparation programs at Western and therefore exhibit a sense of confidence and pride/accomplishment at having met those standards. The method is also typically viewed as good preparation for potential teacher performance evaluation systems. *'94-'97:* TWSM results have allowed the exploration and growth of a model of teacher effectiveness centered on pupils' learning; importantly, both method and model have provided the basis for contributions to ongoing state efforts in educational improvement generally and reform efforts in teacher education and educational measurement and evaluation specifically.
Professional validity: similar to construct validity but adds an orientation that advances the teaching profession. Asks the question Does the task add to or enhance the conception of teachers as professionals?	**3** Beyond the good match between the dimensions of TWSM and other views of teaching, we believe and have argued in our writing that TWSM places teachers in the role of data providers and analyzers in educational monitoring and evaluation and thus invites the public's trust in teachers and enhances the professionalization of teaching. To this point, our view has not been externally verified.
Predictive validity: the potential of the method to forecast performance in other settings or at other times. Asks the question Do the results of preservice work sample performance foretell the effectiveness of practicing teachers? If so, to what degree?	**1** In some sense, teacher licensure decisions (like all certification decisions) include a predictive dimension. We have no empirical evidence for this point that TWSM results are predictive of a teacher's future performance or effectiveness. Two (of many) difficulties in pursuing this line include the uncertainty about what might serve as a predictor variable and the uncertainty as to an obvious criterion variable.

working with teacher education faculty to collaboratively develop and improve TWS measures, including reaching faculty-wide agreement as to the meanings of work sample product measures. Faculty are aware that judgments about students' TWS products and performances must be consistent across raters. The measures were first used in a redesigned teacher preparation program in fall 1997. To alleviate the burden of consistency previously placed on individual faculty, work sample products are now rated by panels of supervisors. Student teachers' work sample implementation is jointly rated by public school and university supervisors. Encouraged by these improvements in work sample appraisal, we continue to work with teacher education faculty to build shared meanings around work sample measures.

This is not to say that participants continue to produce the products that were required by TWSM in a preservice setting. They do not. Participants generally have internalized the method, however, and use it as a conceptual scaffold in planning and teaching. Participants further saw TWSM as a reflection of rigorous performance standards in Western's teacher preparation programs and potentially as useful preparation for performance-based systems of teacher evaluation.

We have undertaken three examinations of the validity of TWSM:

- Analysis of the teaching proficiencies embedded in specific tasks compared with the content of the redesigned teacher education program at Western and with other widely held frameworks of effective teaching (face and content validity)
- Analysis of the philosophy of schooling framing a specific task and comparison with the philosophy undergirding Oregon's standards-based design for 21st-century schooling (construct validity)
- Analysis of the consequences of the TWSM experience for the practice of beginning teachers and for the field of education (consequential validity). The last was accomplished partly through focus group interviews with three groups of recent graduates from Western's teacher preparation programs (elementary, secondary, and special education)

Thus, we believe we have collected considerable evidence about the validity of TWSM. From a task perspective, we contend that TWSM appears relevant, reasonable, and clear to both intending teachers and supervising faculty; is well aligned with the content and orientation of the redesigned teacher education program (which is congruent with the state's design for 21st-century schools); and is consistent with other widely accepted views of accomplished teaching. In other words, the TWS task has good face, content, and construct validity. In addition, primarily because we have used an iterative, collaborative approach to measure development and improvement, we contend that TWS product and implementation measures appear relevant and reasonable to faculty and reflect well the emphases found in redesigned teacher preparation programs. In other words, TWS measures have sound face and content validity.

We are also aware that we must attend to the consequences of the TWS experience for beginning teachers. We have addressed this issue by convening focus groups of Western graduates who are early-career teachers. The results of these focus groups, although not generalizable to all, provide insight into how Western program graduates view TWSM. Typically, focus group participants expressed the view that TWSM reflects "what teachers do" and noted a sense of confidence in their teaching abilities at least partly as a result of having experienced TWSM. This is not to say that participants continue to produce the products that were required by TWSM in a preservice setting. They do not. Participants generally have internalized the method, however, and use it as a conceptual scaffold in planning and teaching. Participants further saw TWSM as a reflection of rigorous performance standards in Western's teacher preparation programs and potentially as useful preparation for performance-based systems of teacher evaluation. A fuller discussion of graduates' views of TWSM is provided in chapter 14.

3. *Statistical analysis of results*. A major empirical issue relates to the methodology's use of teacher-provided evidence of pupils' growth in learning. Because we contend that TWSM allows the estimation of a teacher's effectiveness by connecting what teachers do to the quantity and quality of what pupils learn, we are obligated to demonstrate empirically that this is indeed so. We have approached this in part by using multiple regression. TWS measures together consistently (across replications) explain between 24.5% (at Grades 3-5) and 59.5% (Grades 6-8) of the variance observed in learning, depending on the group under examination. Most encouraging is that the instruments we have used to measure teachers' work (the competency and professionalism domains) "account" for 12.5% (Grades 3-5) to 40.1% (Grades 6-8) of the variance in children's learning (change in adjusted R^2 value in hierarchical regression analyses). This is encouraging in that we are able to actually measure what it is teachers do and relate it to what students learn. This is in contrast to several of the nationally notable approaches to measuring "teacher effects" that use statistical means to apportion unaccounted-for variance in student learning to teachers and schools (e.g., Sanders & Horn, 1994; Webster & Mendro, 1997). Thus, pupils' learning is indeed sensitive to the measures we bring to bear on a prospective teacher's work through TWS.

USES OF TWS ASSESSMENT INFORMATION

Data from TWS results are used at Western for a wide variety of purposes, depending on levels of data aggregation, analyses applied, and the timing of assessment (i.e., only the results from assessing student teachers' final work samples, largely independently completed, are used as one line of evidence in reaching decisions around recommendation for licensure).

Some purposes are formative in orientation, such as feedback to student teachers on the quality and effectiveness of their work or as a source of information to inform improvement and/or redesign efforts for Western's College of Education programs. On the other hand, some purposes are summative, such as using TWS data as one line of evidence in assuring pupils, parents, and schools of the quality and effectiveness of a teacher being recommended for licensure at Western or, in the aggregate, as quality assurance data for external reviewers and/or accreditation agencies examining the effectiveness of the university's teacher education programs.

Instructional (Formative) Uses

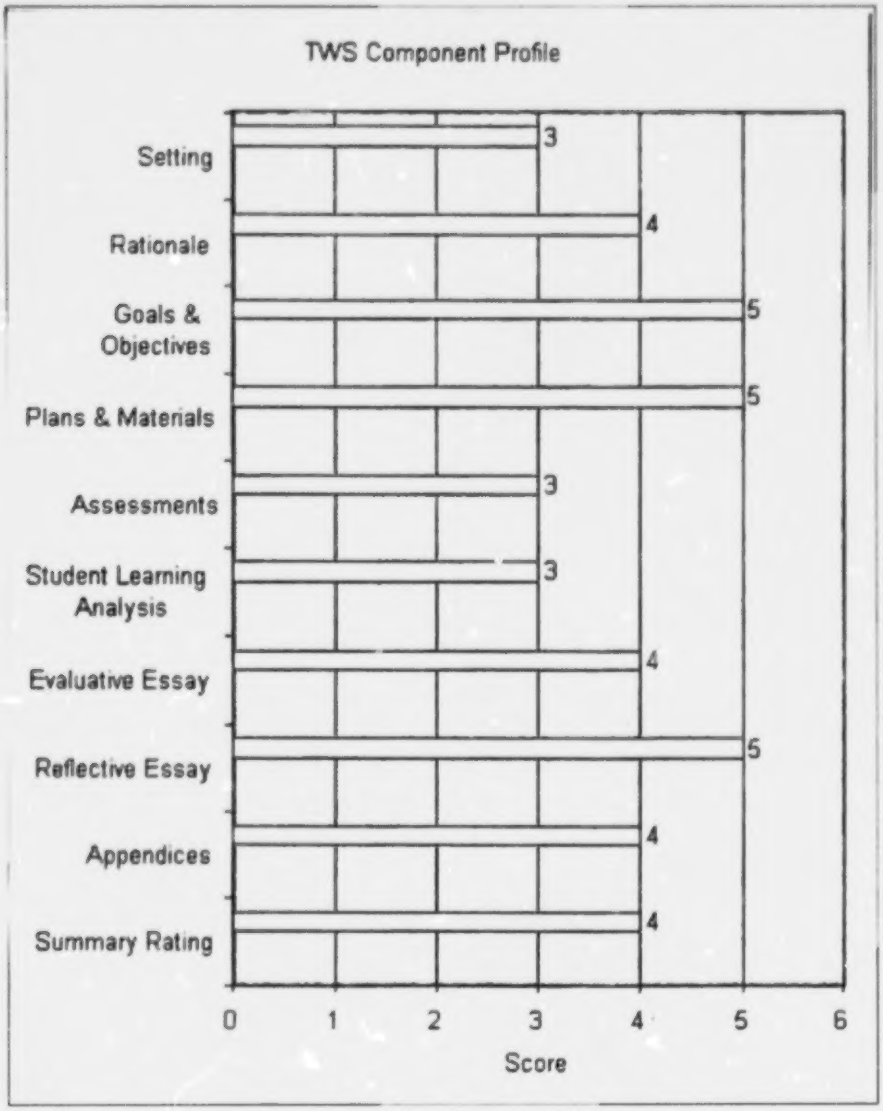
The set of scoring guides for the work sample document and observation instruments used to assess the teaching/learning process result in a profile of performance, such as that presented in Figure 3.2. As an instructional tool for use with individual prospective teachers, areas of strength and areas for continued development become readily apparent as this profile is reviewed. Section II of this handbook provides many suggestions for how one might teach and provide practice and feedback using this kind of information.

TWS data can also be used as an evaluation tool for programs. By aggregating this information across all prospective teachers, areas of potential program strength and weakness become apparent. In addition, when presented longitudinally, faculty can easily stay abreast of changing contexts in schools and determine how prospective teachers' performance changes (or does not change) over time.

TWS assessment information allows for a broad range of evaluation questions to be addressed in an ongoing manner.

- What kinds of learning outcomes are Western student teachers pursuing in their TWSs?
- What is the level of complexity of these learning outcomes?
- What adaptations do Western teachers make to reflect pupil needs and outcomes?
- What kinds of assessment strategies are Western student teachers using to assess learning outcomes?
- What is the quality of these assessment strategies?
- How successful are Western student teachers in helping their pupils achieve these outcomes?
- What levels of competence and professionalism are demonstrated by Western student teachers?
- Which program components seem to contribute most to student teacher effectiveness or success?
- What are the characteristics of the classrooms in which Western student teachers are placed?
- How much influence do cooperating school supervisors seem to have on student teachers' success?
- How much influence do college supervisors have on student teacher success?

Figure 3.2. Sample TWS Profile



Certainly, these and a host of other questions can and should be posed by any teacher preparation program.

Decision-Making (Summative) Uses

Most Oregon institutions use TWSM for purposes of the initial preparation and licensure of teachers. Recent changes require work samples for advanced licensure as well. In Oregon, institutions are responsible for making a recommendation for licensure, while the state's Teacher Standards and Practices Commission is responsible for actually granting the license. Making a recommendation for licensure, however, is a high-stakes summative decision.

At Western, this decision will continue to be made within a joint, clinical decision-making model. Faculty making these joint clinical decisions employ multiple lines of evidence to judge the level of proficiency demonstrated by prospective teachers against well-articulated performance standards. Though they are major contributors to this process, TWSs are only one of many sources of evidence used in this process. A fuller discussion of the policy issues related to recommendations for licensure is presented in chapter 13.

Caveats and Conclusions

Three caveats, each related to the realities of redesigning and implementing teacher education programs while remaining faithful to the letter and spirit in Oregon's reform legislation, are appropriate at this point. First, as Western's teacher education programs have changed significantly to attend to the state's reform, it should not be surprising that initial levels of agreement among faculty on TWS ratings are modest. But, as noted by Danielson (1996) in her narrative around the development of the Praxis III performance assessments for beginning teachers, it is mainly a question of training raters to ensure shared meanings. The use of work samples as an integrative performance task and the accompanying development of TWS appraisal rubrics have raised the issue that any valid measure of performance must yield results that are consistent, trustworthy, and free from bias.

Second, it is important to note that, although Oregon has moved farther down the road than most other states in building a culture of professional accountability by requiring that two TWSs be successfully completed for recommendation for initial licensure, TWSs still are only one line of evidence used in making a decision about licensure. Other important filters include a faculty interview that weighs heavily in the decision regarding acceptance into the program, the California Test of Basic Skills, the PRAXIS series of pedagogical and content assessments, appropriate grade point average, course work, character traits, and successful performance in student teaching.

Third, it must be recognized that because of logistics (the second or last TWS prepared represents essentially a capstone experience) and the collaborative, developmental nature of student teaching, most prospective teachers completing a work sample will be recommended for initial licensure. Those few students who reach these latter stages of the program and are not successful in their final TWS or student teaching generally force faculty to make difficult decisions. When these decisions are left to a single faculty member, less confidence can be placed in their verity than when both college and school supervising faculty are required to reach agreement on such a decision (as they are in Oregon) or when such a decision is staffed and reached jointly by a panel of faculty representing a teacher education program (as they are in Western's programs). The point is, however, the opportunity to evaluate unsuccessful TWSs completed as a capstone demonstration of proficiency is extremely rare, in part because of their timing and in part because ongoing screening of work sample proficiencies before the capstone significantly decreases the likelihood of failure.

SUMMARY

These caveats notwithstanding, the importance of teacher education in the educational reform milieu continues to be our orienting touchstone. This orientation was well captured by Sewall (1997) when she observed that the mission of colleges of education encompasses more than teaching and research. Preparation of teachers for K-12 education places professors in education programs in the role of indirectly teaching virtually all pupils and students (Sewall, 1997). Such an orientation places a significant responsibility on colleges of education to have in place systems that allow them to ensure quality in both their program and their graduates and at the same time to build capacity in the teaching workforce for professional accountability (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1993).

Thus, although TWSs have been required in Oregon for nearly a decade, the methodology is still evolving to respond to the realities of today's schools and students. It is a methodology designed to bring into sharp focus the issue of pupil learning and the work of teachers in fostering learning. As a measurement methodology, it is maturing at Western through the collaborative work of the faculty. As a formative evaluation vehicle for both programs and individuals, it holds great promise. As a summative evaluation vehicle that makes up one part of a licensure decision process, additional work must be done to ensure technical defensibility and to improve the logistical practicality of this methodology. In Oregon, however, to borrow a phrase from another discipline, we prefer approximate answers to the right questions, not precise answers to the wrong questions (Holling, 1997), and in this sense, asking prospective and practicing teachers to demonstrate their effectiveness in terms of growth in pupils' learning is asking the right question.

NOTES

1. This section draws heavily from an article by McConney, Schalock, & Schalock, 1997.
2. These claims are accurate for Western Oregon University. Fairly rigorous principles of design and conditions of use must be met if others are to find similar levels of validity and reliability in the data coming from TWS measures. For a discussion of these principles of design and conditions of use, see H. D. Schalock & Schalock, 1998.

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Chapter 4

Values Offered by Teacher Work Sample Methodology

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Faculty at Western Oregon University are often asked to describe teacher work sample methodology (TWSM). Most who ask the question want to know what the components of a teacher work sample (TWS) are or what knowledge and skills candidates need to produce a TWS.

This chapter attempts to answer the second question: We identify what we think TWSM provides as new knowledge and skills to prospective teachers and, as a concomitant, new benefits to the faculty, pupils, and community that result from embedding TWSM into a teacher preparation program. To answer that question, the first author of this paper interviewed nine senior faculty at Western, asking them to compare what they did and expected of their students before the inception of TWSM with what exists now. This chapter presents a synthesis of those comments.

Two points need to be made about the following content. First, the advantages noted by the faculty do not accrue to every Western teacher candidate. The claimed benefits are to be thought of as merely descriptive of all the advantages that occur across the programs and not those experienced by every student. Second, by comparing what exists now with what was previously present in Western's programs, we have provided a description of what might exist in general for our readers if they adopt TWSM in their programs. There will be variations, however, depending on the degree of similarity between the reader's current program and Western's previous program. Historically, Western's past programs received several national honors. We are describing what were already highly respected programs. It is impressive, we think, that TWSM has added value to what were widely accepted as productive teacher preparation efforts.

PLANNING FOR INSTRUCTION

Table 4.1 describes common instructional planning expectations at Western before the inception of TWSM compared with the current ones for candidates seeking an initial teaching license. The first column presents previous expectations, the middle column current expectations, and the third column what we

Table 4.1. A Comparison of Teaching Expectations

Previous expectations for instructional units	**Current teacher work sample expectation for instructional units**	**Dimensions of added value**
Plans		
1.1 Focus was on measurable objectives.	1.1 Outcomes are to be aligned with national, state, and local goals/benchmarks and with pupil needs.	1. Alignment of all institutional unit components is a central expectation.
1.2 Creativity was sought in selecting teacher materials and strategies.	1.2 Instruction is to be aligned with outcomes and with pupil and community needs.	
1.3 Authentic assessment (performance based) expected, though not often required.	1.3 Assessment is to be aligned with instruction (practice activities provided), pupil needs, and outcomes.	
2. Outcomes drawn from more than one domain of outcomes were required though seldom evaluated.	2. Breadth across domains and depth within domains are expected for outcomes sought.	2. Outcomes sought would be described by most as being "important" pupil learning targets.
3. Clearly stated instructional plan was required.	3. Variability in teaching and assessment strategies to account for differences in learners and outcomes to be accomplished is also expected.	3. Provision for pupil learning differences is expected.
4. Interdisciplinary instructional plans were included if the supervisor so required.	4. If the candidate deems it appropriate, plans are developed that draw from two or more curriculum areas.	4. Curricular integration occurs when context, outcomes, or pupil needs require it. Candidate makes the decision.
Supervisor's role		
5. Classroom supervisor judged the appropriateness of unit plans and was the sole source in assessing the alignment of the unit with local curriculum and pupil needs.	5.1 Classroom supervisor judges appropriateness of the unit plans, one of the data sources in judging alignment of the unit. 5.2 Candidate also judges and explains the appropriateness of the unit.	5. The appropriateness of the unit is more carefully analyzed.
6. A rationale statement was not typically required.	6. Rationale is provided for planning decisions as well as standards of accomplishment selected; needed differentiation in outcomes, instruction, and assessment is clarified.	6. A clear explanation of reasons behind planning decisions is provided.
Context description		
7. Brief description of the classroom was provided, typically including number of children, gender ratio, type of curriculum and materials, and time schedule.	7. Context description includes significant demand and support variables.	7. Rating of plans likely to be influenced by and referenced against the context.

inferred to be the added benefits to candidates, the teacher education program, and/or the public when TWSM was made a part of Western's preparation programs.

Planning Skills

In the programs of the early 1990s at Western, two significant influences supported the development of TWSM: behaviorism and teacher competency. A common expectation at Western was for teaching candidates to write measurable objectives and to prepare carefully explicated lesson plans. Supervisors focused their assessment on a prospective teacher's plans for the measurability of the selected outcomes and the clarity of the stated plans. Some faculty rewarded students for developing instructional plans that were original or creative (compared with what usually occurred in that classroom). Others looked at the plans to ensure that there was some degree of alignment between the plans and the stated outcomes. But the most common expectations for candidates' planning skills centered around specific outcomes and instructional plans. Three significant changes in candidates' planning skills have been noted at Western since the adoption of TWSM.

In the current program, structural consistency of the candidate's unit with the state's and district's curricula is carefully assessed. Supervisors review the goals and plans, searching for the manifestations of alignment. The validity of that assessment is judged, in part, when candidates discuss how they made those connections in a statement called the *rationale*. Instructional plans are expected to be aligned with not only the outcomes but also the assessed needs of the children and, when appropriate, the expectations of the community. Practice activities are to be found in the instructional plan that are aligned with both the stated unit outcomes and the assessment activities the candidate has chosen. Instructional units exhibiting internal congruity became an expected characteristic after TWSM was adopted at Western.

In the past, Western supervisors, sometimes reinforced by published program requirements, expected candidates to develop plans that incorporated more than one domain of outcome—cognitive, affective, psychomotor. The current standard calls for candidates to develop goals and objectives that vary by kind and complexity. That standard requires candidates to include in their units more varied levels of outcomes within a domain as well as those drawn from two or more domains. (As noted elsewhere, special education teacher preparation students at Western are sometimes absolved of this requirement, as their pupils may not benefit from curricular complexity.) The literature suggesting how to account for variability in pupil learning strategies and the developmental differences common in classrooms has brought about the expectation at Western that candidates need to employ a variety of teaching and assessment strategies to account for a broad array of pupils' needs. Meeting the instructional needs of all children is a daunting task, and it is more likely to be met if candidates provide a variety of learning outcomes and paths for their pupils.

Another significant transition in planning expectations between the old and new programs is the shift from focusing on teachers' products to focusing on pupils' learning. Teachers' products (and behaviors) are still carefully observed throughout a candidate's program, but the standard for judging their worthiness is whether they are likely to have (or already have) beneficially influenced pupils' learning. We spend less time, for example, worrying about the creativity of lesson plans and more about the effectiveness of the feedback opportunities planned to help pupils attain a specific outcome. Evaluating a candidate's plans to determine the likelihood that they will benefit pupils' learning is a central feature of TWSM—and an added benefit to Western's current program.

An important descriptor of the current philosophy underlying Western's preparation programs is that a focus on constructivist principles exists. The shift from behaviorism can be best seen in two manifestations. First, candidates are expected to design and implement classroom environments that facilitate learning rather than just perform teaching actions deemed to be effective. Second, candidates are also expected to help their pupils construct knowledge rather than just recall and comprehend what was taught. In other words, expectations for pupils' learning shifted from knowledge acquisition to what is viewed as complex and meaningful learning. Western's current approach expects more of candidates and of their pupils.

Supervisors' Roles

The previous role of a Western university or classroom supervisor was generally an isolated one in judging the candidate's performance and products. Each performed distinct roles. The classroom supervisor was usually relied on, for example, to judge the alignment of the plan with the pupils' needs and abilities, while the college supervisor judged whether the outcomes were of sufficient importance (often employing undisclosed standards in making that decision). As now, both supervisors conferred on the candidate's instructional implementation skills. The common practice, however, was to rely on one supervisor or the other to develop these important, but too often independent, judgments.

Currently under TWSM, a much different set of role expectations exists for supervisors. First, there is an organized attempt to foster professional independence in graduates. Candidates are asked to explain, with some persuasiveness, the planning decisions they have made. In particular, they are asked to state how it was that they came to select certain outcomes, instructional strategies, and assessment products or procedures. They later also reflect on their performance as facilitators of learning. Both activities expedite the skill and willingness to review one's performance and future as a classroom teacher. Because veteran teachers regularly report they usually make these reflective decisions alone (Clark & Peterson, 1986), learning how to perform such an important task is another significant outcome of TWSM for Western's students.

Context Description

The candidate's task of describing the context was previously given validity by explaining it as a way to help the university supervisor become aware of the classroom and the children. The context description was then viewed as principally for the benefit of that supervisor. Variables such as the number of boys and girls and racial or ethnic distributions that made up the class were described. Seldom was information sought that emanated from outside the classroom. The context variable was seldom a part of a candidate's planning decisions or an important element when supervisors judged those skills.

Much has been written about the necessity to focus on outcomes of instruction as a measure of a teacher's effectiveness, but it has been acknowledged only recently that contextual effects need to be considered (Sears & Hersh, 1998). With the inception of TWSM and the accompanying focus on pupils' learning, the context variable became even more influential. If a candidate's performance was to be assessed by looking at pupils' learning, among other elements, then the demand and support characteristics of the setting needed to be analyzed and made a part of the evaluative decision. The causal patterns associated with elements such as school policies and community expectations as well as more detailed analyses of the classroom such as the needs of special pupils, curricular complexity, and the availability of aides needed to be known. The demands of TWSM require the candidate to be prepared to use the knowledge of the context as another tool in enhancing pupils' learning. Contextual knowledge is now considered to be a prerequisite to insightful teaching performance by Western's students rather than a service provided the visiting or college supervisor.

Western recognizes the importance of contextual teaching and learning through multiple placement settings for candidates to prepare them for the new demands placed on them in their teaching roles. As candidates are provided opportunities to teach in multiple settings, "there is an assumption that knowledge is inseparable from the contexts and activities within which it develops" (O'Sullivan, 1999, p. 15).

ADAPTATIONS

An important difference between previous teacher education program expectations at Western and what currently exists with the adoption of TWSM is that related to adaptations. Adaptations are the accommodations or modifications teachers make in their general instructional plans to account for the needs of children who may be developmentally delayed, emotionally fragile, unusually adept scholastically, or challenged by a linguistic, mental, or physical barrier. In today's schools where children are more commonly mainstreamed, teachers need to be prepared to respond to the variable needs of their pupils. As diversity becomes an increasing reality in today's classrooms, people preparing to become teachers must be able to adapt instruction. Three significant changes in Western's teacher education program seem to be associated with TWSM and its impact on the expectation for the adaptations students plan.

Who Is Being Taught

In the previous program, particularly for those preparing to become general education rather than special education teachers, plans were to be constructed that described how the candidate hoped to meet the learning needs of the majority of the children in the classroom (see Table 4.2). Large-group instruction was expected and seldom questioned. Instructional strategies and materials chosen were those the candidate thought to be most appropriate for that group and those outcomes. In turn, the candidate's ability to match the supervisor's judgment as to what was an appropriate strategy was evaluated. Decisions were made about the group's needs; those decisions formed the basis for judging the candidate's planning skills. Though adaptations were seldom explicitly planned, supervisors occasionally asked or interviewed their students about their plans for the reticent or even the obviously challenged pupil. But adaptations were infrequently expected. The assumption seemed to be that if the candidate could derive adaptations for one or two needy pupils, then it was likely such decisions could be made for all children.

Table 4.2. A Comparison of Planning Adaptations

Previous expectations for instructional units	Current teacher work sample expectations for instructional units	Dimensions of added value
1. The classroom teacher certified the planned lesson was likely to fit most of the children's needs.	1. Using his or her own knowledge of typical intellectual and physical abilities as well as emotional predispositions for this age group, the candidate appropriately selects outcomes and instructional strategies.	1. Developmentally appropriate plans are independently drafted.
2. For the occasionally disruptive child, the candidate planned an alternative activity.	2. After reviewing cognitive, physical, and emotional needs of exceptional learners, the candidate develops necessary and feasible adaptations in outcomes, instruction, and/or assessment.	2.1 Each outcome is preassessed to determine the group's or individuals' current status. 2.2 Consistent with the philosophy that all children can learn, plans include adaptations to help exceptional pupils learn the selected subject matter.

Now, within the milieu of TWSM, prospective teachers are evaluated in terms of their ability to work within the goal of "fostering learning gains for all children." That view means candidates are not just encouraged but expected to provide adaptations. One does not need to be terribly perceptive to note the variable needs of children within even the most discrete unit of instruction. Varying developmental levels, knowledge of prerequisite skills, learning styles, and needs for varying levels of abstractness become obvious to even the newest professional. The teacher serves as a facilitator of learning who responds to pupils' needs with sensitivity as to whether the child is making sense of the world from his or her perspective and culture (Windschitl, 1999). The only way to account for those needs at even a rudimentary level is to be prepared to provide variance in instructional strategies and materials. The expectations underlying TWSM ensure that candidates not only provide adaptations but also describe them and the rationale behind them. The adaptations are to be carefully thought through and presented as professional decisions. Adaptations are a formal part of the instructional planning for a TWS.

Role of Assessment

The thoughtful selection and development of adapted strategies and materials must occur in a setting of informed decision making. The information necessary to develop effective adaptations finds its source in the children. That means candidates must collect information from or about their pupils before finalizing their instructional plans.

In the previous Western program, preassessment was not an important focus in the development of units. If it was required, usually by the candidate's college supervisor, the existence of the preassessment was checked off, indicating only that it existed in some form. Seldom was the quality (alignment, validity, feasibility) of the process judged. Unless a current on-campus course focused on using a pretest, the only preinstructional analysis of the pupils' status was accomplished by asking the classroom supervisor to judge whether the proposed plans were appropriate for these children. Using unidentified information sources, the supervisor would decide on the likelihood of the plan's effectiveness. If the supervisor thought some modification was necessary to account for a child or subset of children, then those plans were developed by the candidate. With few exceptions, decisions about necessary adaptations were made by the supervisor—not the candidate. Adaptations were not thought of as the candidate's responsibility.

Currently, candidates are expected to make adaptive decisions for one principal reason. With TWSM's inherent focus on pupils' learning gains, the use of a preinstructional assessment process is obligatory. Those data serve as information sources for necessary adaptations. Candidates have a valuable information source they have selected, collected, and analyzed in deciding what instructional steps are needed for these children. The preassessment serves in deciding whether the materials and strategies selected are likely to meet the instructional needs of all the children. When it is decided one or more adaptations are needed, the candidate is to develop those accommodations.

A major feature of TWSM is the dual utility of preassessment procedures in serving to determine learning and to guide the development of adaptive strategies. Preinstructional assessment can be thought of as not only a necessary element in the process for judging the accountability and effectiveness of the candidate but also as a critical part of the process in selecting and validating one's instructional planning decisions for special children.

Professional Independence

In the previous program at Western, candidates relied on their supervisors for decisions about what planned adaptations, if any, were necessary to account for pupils' needs. The selection of the data sources for making those decisions was also left to the discretion of the supervisors. The prospective teachers were in essence absolved of any significant role in the adaptive process; they were not expected to demonstrate their professional acumen in this area.

With the advent of TWSM, teacher education students at Western are held responsible for gathering and interpreting the learning information as well as developing an adaptive set of strategies aligned with their unit's outcomes. They are expected to take a more professional stance in determining the need for accommodations and the form those accommodations will take. Currently, candidates are to play a more independent role in determining adaptations. Such a focus on professional independence is one that employers of teachers want—people who know how to make their own decisions about something so intimate to their role and who can make instructional decisions to enhance learning for all their pupils.

TEACHING STRATEGIES

No specific teaching strategies are associated specifically with TWSM. We have argued in previous papers that one of the guiding assumptions behind TWSM is that candidates are to employ instructional strategies that seem most likely to facilitate learning for these pupils attaining a selected set of outcomes. Because of the continuing instructional focus on pupils' learning, however, certain strategies are more likely to be prevalent when a candidate is implementing a TWS (see Table 4.3). This segment identifies the strategies one is likely to notice when a TWS is taught, compared with the more common teaching strategies of the past.

Roles of Candidates and Pupils

Before the inception of TWSM at Western, supervisors often found that the commonly chosen teaching strategies involved some form of large-group instruction and, within that category, some form of lecture. A reading assignment was often given, followed by a lecture or teacher-directed discussion, followed by some type of summary activity such as a worksheet or quiz. The role of the teacher was to serve as the central figure in the learning process. The pupils' role was to be cooperative, on-task participants who spent long periods being silent, followed by occasional oral responses, followed by participation in a writing activity. Although some variability existed around those strategies, then as now, these roles for teachers and pupils were common.

Table 4.3. A Comparison of Teaching Strategy Expectations

Previous expectations for instructional units	Current teacher work sample expectations for instructional units	Dimensions of added value
1. The introduction explained tasks and activities.	1. The initial step entails clarifying expectations, reviewing standards, and showing examples.	1. The initial step is to focus pupils' attention on outcomes to be achieved.
2. Instruction often entailed a lecture, followed by reading, discussion, and a summary.	2. New content or skills are introduced, a focus on standards is maintained, and variety in teaching strategies is provided.	2. Learning options are provided for different learning styles, though each is to be clearly anchored to one or more of the unit's outcomes.
3. Teacher sought to keep the children on task.	3. Teacher coaches, questions, clarifies, encourages collaboration (to enhance, among other aims, feedback opportunities), and supports effort.	3. Teacher plays role of learning colleague rather than learning director.
4. Instructional time was allotted on the basis of how long it was thought it would take the teacher to complete the steps planned.	4. Instructional time is allotted on the basis of how long it is assumed children will need to accomplish the outcomes. Adaptations in timing are made as necessary to ensure learning.	4. Time is provided, as necessary, to ensure learning.
5. Pupils' cooperation and participation are hoped for.	5.1 Pupils view learning activities as important; they involve themselves of their own volition. 5.2 Pupils understand how instruction and feedback will help them attain the unit's outcomes.	5. Pupils are active participants in the learning process.
6. Formative assessment commonly involved worksheets, homework, games, or practice.	6. Pupils evaluate the work of others as well as their own; teacher provides feedback about progress toward outcomes.	6. Formative assessment becomes an instructional strategy (as opposed to certifying a grade).
7. No particular expectations were held with regard to materials, though novelty was often admired.	7. A materials-rich environment is provided to support pupils' independence and to meet their varying learning styles; pupils are expected to be more independent in selecting learning steps.	7. Materials are selected to meet pupils' needs, encourage independence, and enhance learning rather than demonstrate creativity.

After TWSM became an embedded component in the teacher preparation program at Western, the roles of both teachers and pupils changed. Teacher education students commonly began their instruction focusing pupils' attention on the selected standards for the unit. The outcomes were described and pupils' understanding of the goals and objectives was sought by showing them exemplars of the desired performance level. During instruction, the candidates commonly played the role of a supporter of the learning process, providing coaching, asking questions, and redirecting pupils when they floundered. With that shift, the children seemed to be more involved in their learning, which meant they experienced more frequent, direct contact with the teacher. The children are likely to become more self-aware of their status as learners as they become involved in evaluating their own progress and ask for help when they think it is necessary. The shift is not dramatic in terms of teaching strategies employed, but it is in the expectations candidates and pupils hold for one another.

Implementation

The selection of strategies and materials in the past was often governed by what time would allow. In that instruction, which was more tightly controlled by the prospective teacher, the instructional strategies used were regularly those that allowed teaching to fit into the time allotted. Materials were often selected by Western's students with an eye toward being creative and enjoyable for the pupils. As a matter of fact, it was common for both classroom and college supervisors to extol a candidate's skills in finding or developing games or activities that were new and novel.

In the current setting, with TWSM the central component of the Western programs, novelty and creativity are not ignored, but they are not sufficient for a candidate to demonstrate skill in instruction. Strategies are more carefully selected for their alignment with the unit's outcomes and pupils' needs than for their uniqueness. Materials are chosen or developed to foster attaining a specific outcome. That latter concept means that it is common to find an array of teaching strategies and materials in a unit to facilitate the many learning needs regularly found in a classroom. Though the allotment of time for the selected strategies and materials is still important, it is not the central feature; appropriateness in fostering learning gains is the characteristic most highly valued. Previously, assessment of instructional plans employed criteria not explicitly tied to pupils' learning such as "employs higher level thinking strategies" or "provides activities to foster pupil engagement" versus more direct statements used to rate a TWS such as "strategies are likely to bring about learning of the outcomes" or "assessments are aligned with unit outcomes." The focus has shifted from examining plans teachers had for their own behavior to reviewing plans to determine whether they are likely to change children's behaviors.

Formative Assessment as Instruction

The previous program at Western included few expectations about candidates providing formative evaluation activities. We did anticipate that candidates would provide for outcomes such as "acquiring higher order thinking skills" through their use of selected questioning strategies. The assumption seemed to be that if our prospective teachers employed those types of questions, children would acquire a mental set allowing them to attack intellectual problems throughout their lives. Providing an opportunity for children to respond to such questions was viewed as a sufficient purpose for these types of activities. That meant, however, that the focus of our supervisory attention was on the candidate's behavior, not the pupils'. The alignment of those instructional activities with the unit's outcomes was seldom rigorously assessed. Rather, their existence was sufficient to appease our standards.

With the advent of TWSM and its corresponding focus on pupils' learning, faculty at Western look at formative assessment much differently. First, supervisors expect to see practice activities for children as they develop skillfulness with the unit's outcomes. Second, we expect to find specific plans where children receive feedback about their progress toward those standards. Third, the instructional activities and the feedback provided are also reviewed in terms of their alignment with the outcomes. Fourth, formative assessment, if it is to guide pupils' acquisition of a set of outcomes, needs to be more frequently employed and specific to each child. The assessment of instructional plans has shifted from examining teaching behaviors to evaluating whether the plans are deemed valid in bringing about learning. And in the candidates' minds, formative assessment has shifted from performing a set of steps, such as employing a set of questioning strategies, to serving the role of a very functional teaching strategy. Formative assessment is implemented as a necessary device to help children learn.

With the implementation of TWSM at Western, the instructional purpose of units has changed. Teachers and pupils expect different roles from one another, teaching strategies and materials are assessed differently, and formative assessment has become a crucial teaching strategy. We believe each of these changes is important and beneficial to all concerned in the educational process.

ASSESSMENT

Much has been written elsewhere about the shortcomings of instruction provided to teacher candidates regarding classroom assessment. Much of what was taught at Western was guilty of the same set of concerns (see Table 4.4.). We focused our assessment discussions on topics such as how data can be used in assigning grades. (In that employers of Western's graduates believed that skill was needed in their new employees, we would have been irresponsible not to teach how to use assessment in grading.) Another significant part of our conversation about assessment dealt with interpreting standardized tests, including learning about technical qualities such as validity and reliability. When we discussed how one might provide feedback to pupils using assessment data, the focus was often superficial; little direction was provided in how to accomplish that task. Western students seldom viewed assessment topics as having practical utility or being beneficial to them as classroom teachers.

Currently, assessment is taught differently to Western teacher education students. Assessment concepts focus on providing information to the teacher, pupils, and parents about the child's accomplishment in attaining specific outcomes. Assessment topics such as validity, reliability, and feasibility are still taught, but the focus is on the functionality of the concepts in helping to provide in-

Table 4.4. A Comparison of Assessment Expectations

Previous expectations for instructional units	Current teacher work sample expectations for instructional units	Dimensions of added value
Assessment skills		
1. When oral assessment feedback was provided during a discussion, it often lacked coverage for all pupils; from a written test, it often lacked alignment with all the outcomes sought.	1. Formative and summative feedback is regularly provided and is more useful to achievement because alignment exists with the outcomes.	1. Feedback occurs with greater regularity and greater congruence with the outcome(s) to be achieved.
2. The purpose was primarily to provide an objective basis for grading.	2.1 Feedback is referenced against the standards for learning and the progress pupils are making toward them. 2.2 Feedback is provided to parents, much like an executive summary.	2. Feedback is broadly useful and helps pupils manage their own learning.
3. Consistency/reliability in assessment was sought.	3. Variety in assessment is also sought.	3. Provision for learning differences among pupils is better accounted for.
4. An explanation of the behaviors needed to earn a specific grade or a high score was provided to pupils.	4. Pupils believe the measures and procedures used to measure their performance are valid and important indicators of their learning.	4. Pupils understand and are actively involved in assessment and planning decisions.
Data analysis and interpretation		
5. How well did the pupils do on the posttest? Usually a mean score for the group was provided as an answer.	5.1 Learning data about pupils are displayed for each child, selected important subgroups, and the class as a whole. 5.2 Discussion of the degree of attainment for each group and child is provided.	5.1 Learning becomes the basis of all analyses completed by the candidate. 5.2 Both group and individual analyses are undertaken to determine effectiveness. 5.3 A statement is made as to which desired outcomes were met.
6. Did the pupils participate and seem to enjoy themselves?	6. Discussion includes the candidate's perception of the importance the children attached to their long-term and short-term learning gains.	6. The determination of the unit's effectiveness includes an analysis of pupil affect.
7. What next instructional steps might be appropriate?	7. Teacher reflects on next appropriate instructional steps.	7. The candidate is also to respond in terms of each unit objective.

structional support to children as they learn and to provide information to professionals and parents about the achievement of each child. The conversation about assessment has become more oriented to the classroom and less focused on the district and state. That change does not mean we believe knowledge of standardized tests and their interpretation to be a wasteful task for professionals. Rather, it means assessment purposes are discussed in terms of their support of an individual child's learning. That latter point means TWSM graduates are expected to need a greater repertoire of assessment skills because they need to determine as validly as possible each child's learning. And supervisors need to assess with greater care than in the past the assessment strategies and materials selected to determine their alignment with the outcomes and their congruence with the child's abilities.

Assessments that monitor pupils' learning are conducted informally and formally on an ongoing basis throughout the teaching unit, and data are interpreted to adjust the curriculum to meet the needs of the children. As prospective teachers progress through work sample development and implementation, they are asked to design lessons that take into account the performance of their students. They are asked to check the school/district curriculum for major topics to be taught at their specific level. Candidates select a topic and provide a rationale for teaching the topic with consideration given to the context, the community, and the children. Prospective teachers are also to review state and district guidelines to ascertain long-range goals and daily objectives. Their unit assessment is to encompass the selected goals and objectives. Pupils are to be pretested to determine what they already know and what they need yet to learn. If the children demonstrate they already know or could perform one of the goals, it is then eliminated in favor of a new outcome. Assessment skills are more functional and more classroom specific under TWSM.

In the past, when and if candidates were asked to reflect on their teaching performance, they typically reported how well the class had done. Mean scores from a test were often the only data source discussed. Occasionally, the performance of an individual child was mentioned, often to denote when someone had done remarkably well. A common item included was a description of how much the children enjoyed the instructional activities and how good they had been. One Western instructor described these reports as cheerleading papers because the students seemed to want to encourage the reader to be enthusiastic about the unit and the student's performance. Given that novelty in instructional strategies and materials was regularly rewarded, a discussion of the children's responsiveness to the instruction can be viewed as a logical extension. Almost never was performance specific to each unit's objective discussed. With much of the planning emphasis on the teacher's (not the pupils') actions, it should not be thought illogical that candidates spent little time discussing the learning and behaviors of the children.

Currently, the reflections of candidates on their recently completed TWSs describe pupils' achievement from many different perspectives. Learning gains (or losses) for the total group, subgroups, and individuals are discussed. Achievement of individual objectives is reported. The data display is judged in terms of whether data are interpreted accurately, that summaries fit with the data provided. In addition, candidates are asked to describe how much value the children seemed to assign to their learning activities and accomplishments. Did the pupils value what had happened and what they accomplished? The analysis is guided by trying to clearly describe the children's learning—which is not to say supervisors are uninterested in whether the children enjoyed the learning experience. They enjoy reading about a candidate's perceptions of how the children reacted. The interpretive conversation is, however, more clearly focused on the degree to which learning occurred.

REFLECTION

When candidates reflect on their performance, we expect they will review two elements: the impact of their work on the learning achievements of the pupils, and a self-analysis of their status as professionals. (Table 4.5 compares Western's expectations before TWSM with current expectations.)

Before TWSM, Western's supervisors commonly asked candidates to finish their work sample by describing what they had learned. The criteria for this activity were nonspecific. Ambiguity about expectations for this analysis was obvious,

Table 4.5. A Comparison of Reflective Expectations

Previous expectations for instructional units	Current teacher work sample expectations for instructional units	Dimensions of added value
1. The supervisors provide comments as they deem necessary.	1. Candidates combine the supervisor's view with their own judgment to reflect on their actions related to learning gains.	1. Candidates complete the difficult task of stating whether they were a positive or negative influence on the many aspects of the children's learning.
2. What did the candidate learn?	2.1 Candidates reflect on their own performance against pupils' progress as well as the perception of instructional decisions and actions. 2.2 Candidates reflect on continuing professional tasks that seem necessary.	2. A statement is developed about one's next professional goals, which are logical outgrowths of the TWS experience. The statement's construction is guided in part by the previously developed self-assessment plan.

and, accordingly, candidates' papers varied as to what was included. Often the discussion focused on what the candidates had learned about management and the continuing conviction of their commitment to becoming teachers or, for those seeking an advanced license, more effective professionals. Supervisors tended to add their personal comments to the students' papers and return them with congratulations for a job well done. In other words, this component of the reflective piece was more perfunctory than an important professional activity.

Currently, supervisors expect to read several items in a reflective statement (the following list of expected entries should not be thought of as chronological). First, the candidate is to propose the amount of influence his or her teaching performance may have had on the varying learning gains noted in the previous section. The candidate should describe what causal influence the instructional strategies and materials as well as the power of his or her own personality may have had on children's learning. Elements such as warmth, charm, leadership, charisma, reticence, and dogmatism are appropriate factors for discussion in this part of the reflective statement. The discussion is evaluated for the logic and persuasiveness of the argument. Second, candidates are to synthesize the supervisors' reported perceptions of the unit and its implementation with their own views to develop a short but specific list of what they did well and what might need changing in the future. This analysis is to provide the candidate as well as the reader with a snapshot of the student's status in becoming a widely proficient teacher. Third, using the data points above, candidates are to identify the next steps they believe necessary for themselves to further their professional development. This last statement is to show connections to the discussions of pupils' learning, the candidate's assumed influence on ,that learning, and the perceptions of the candidate and the supervisors. The reader of the reflective statement should note a logical outgrowth in the judgments drawn from the data presented.

The reflective piece, then, is much more clearly focused for both the writer (the candidate) and the reader (one or both supervisors). With TWSM's focus on pupils' learning, the expectations for candidates' reflection are clearer and likely to be highly valued by all concerned, including the public. TWSM allows the candidate to be reflective "upon all that goes into being a professional teacher, and having meaningful evidence at hand as to how effective one actually is in accomplishing one's aims as a teacher" (Schalock et al., 1999, pp. 5-7).

Figure 4.1. Summary of Dimensions of Value Added to Teacher Preparation and Licensure Through TWSM

Planning

1. Thorough alignment of outcomes, instruction, and assessment with one another and with pupils' needs.
2. Important (or complex) objectives at least part of the unit's outcomes.
3. Differences in pupils' learning taken into account.
4. Integration of disciplines, when appropriate.
5. Appropriateness of the unit carefully assessed.
6. Planning decisions thoroughly explained.
7. Context descriptions allow an assessor to be responsive to the demands of the candidate's setting.

Adaptations

8. Instructional plans developmentally appropriate.
9. Adaptations account for exceptional learners.

Teaching strategies

10. Pupils' attention called to the outcomes they are to achieve.
11. Learning opportunities build on varying learning styles of the children taught.
12. Teacher a facilitator of learning rather than the center of instructional attention.
13. Time provided as necessary to ensure learning.
14. Pupils actively participate in the learning process.
15. Practice and feedback used to enhance learning.
16. Materials selected to encourage exploration and independence in learning.

Assessment

17. Assessment and feedback aligned with the outcomes being sought.
18. Feedback used to provide specific performance information for pupils and parents.
19. Variation in assessment used to provide a more accurate view of children's learning.
20. Pupils more involved in assessment decisions.
21. Conclusions as to which outcomes are met clearly stated and supported by the data.

Reflection

22. Pupils' learning the central element in unit analysis and candidates' self-analysis.
23. Judging candidates' effectiveness fostered by reviewing both individual and group learning gain.
24. Ways the unit may have influenced the children's affect determined.
25. Candidate's next professional goal(s) determined based on all of the above.

SUMMARY

The values that can be added to teacher preparation programs through the use of TWSM can be summarized in two ways. One is to discuss the specific elements that have been added to instructional planning, adaptations, implementation of the instructional unit, assessment and interpretation of pupils' achievement, and reflection. Figure 4.1 provides that summary. Its entries, drawn from Tables 4.1 to 4.5, provide a rather impressive list of value added.

Table 4.6. Eight Important Benefits Emanating From TWSM

Benefit	**Added value**
Alignment	Unit goals align with state/district goals, objectives with goals, outcomes with pupils' needs, instruction with outcomes, and assessment with outcomes.
Important outcomes sought	Alignment with state/district goals ensures importance to the community; the standard for Western's TWSs requires outcomes that vary by kind and complexity, which calls for broader, more demanding, and more complex goals.
Disciplines integrated when appropriate	When appropriate, instructional and assessment strategies encourage pupils to learn and produce evidence of their learning by employing two or more curriculum areas simultaneously–just as people solve problems in the real world by drawing on all their knowledge at one time.
Adaptations	To meet the goal of helping all children to learn, instruction and assessment are adapted to meet the needs of all pupils.
Authentic assessment	Assessment activities are as valid, reliable, and feasible as possible.
Formative feedback	Practice and feedback become central instructional concepts as candidates help their pupils achieve unit outcomes.
Learning gains	The whole TWS focuses on helping children to acquire the unit's outcomes; the whole TWS is evaluated by asking first how well the children learned.
Reflection	The candidate's analysis of the unit focuses on how his/her teaching influenced the children's learning *and* the candidate's next professional development steps.

A more important set of benefits may be those listed in Table 4.6, which summarizes the eight most significant advantages we believe are associated with TWSM.

We are often asked whether we really believe that Western's graduates will construct TWSs when they are classroom teachers. The answer is "of course not." What we do expect is that any informed observer of a Western graduate will see, on a regular basis, that the eight benefits listed in Table 4.6 are evident. Western graduates will, in ways that are appropriate to their setting, regularly employ the eight benefits in their teaching day. These are the benefits we believe Western graduates will take to their classrooms. We do not think they will produce TWSs, and we do not think they should. But we do expect they will act in certain ways that indicate that their experience with TWSs has brought them skills the profession, the community, and their pupils will admire and appreciate.

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Section II

Instruction for Teacher Work Sample Skills and Concepts

This section was written for teacher educators interested in knowing how to teach about work samples or in learning about alternative ways to supplement their current teaching about work samples (although others also may find the section of value). The structure of each chapter in this section is intended to aid those who wish to learn effective strategies for teaching about TWSs.

Each chapter

- Begins with a set of goal statements describing what we hope teacher educators will learn (most include a list of objectives teacher educators might provide students in their teacher education program)
- Contains a set of performance measures referenced against the objectives that could be used to assess students' work as they attempt to demonstrate their teaching skills
- Includes an overview of the chapter topic followed by sets of suggested teaching activities teacher educators might use with their students
- Contains teaching strategies to provide alternatives for preparing elementary, secondary, and special education teachers

In addition, some chapters include appendixes such as detailed instructions and scoring guides for assignments and feature boxes in which Western instructors describe in detail a teaching activity they have undertaken that seems particularly effective with their students.

No Western student experiences all the teaching strategies described in the following chapters. The suggestions came from Western and other institutions' faculty who found the described processes successful with their students.

We hope some of the ideas will be of benefit to our readers. We have noted that our graduates found many of these ideas advantageous in developing skills useful to them as new teachers. TWSM is actually a set of skills many good teachers would implement even if they had no intention of developing what we have called a work sample. TWSM represents much of what most think of as "good instruction." Even if a teacher educator chooses not to implement TWSM, we believe many of these strategies will serve his or her prospective teachers well.

Chapter 5

An Overview of Teacher Work Sample Methodology

by Gerald R. Girod, Western Oregon University

Goals for Teacher Educators
After reading this chapter, teacher educators will know several instructional strategies for ensuring the prerequisite skills and providing an overview of TWSM to teacher education students. They will know ways to present the content inductively, deductively, and through modeling.

Teacher work sample methodology (TWSM) entails a complex set of tasks for students to learn. Students need to learn, for example, how to implement a set of alignment skills that even veteran teachers find difficult:

- Aligning goals and objectives
- Aligning goals and objectives with instruction
- Aligning goals, objectives, and instruction with assessment strategies
- Aligning goals, objectives, instruction, and assessment with pupils' needs

We also want students to be able to do all these things while adjusting their instruction to the setting and being prepared to attempt to achieve a full range of outcomes across the cognitive and psychomotor domains. They need to do it all while they employ a variety of instructional models with, possibly, curricula they have never seen. They need to do it all while employing content that is well structured, accurate, and appropriate to the pupils. And they need to do it all while embarking on a new career. Several Western Oregon faculty have said they thought TWSM was difficult for even a veteran teacher to implement; it is asking much from beginners in our profession.

As students begin learning about TWSM, it is imperative that the introduction to the purposes, processes, and expectations is as clear and precise as possible. Not only is TWSM complex in that it reflects the myriad demands of teaching; it also usually portends that a set of high-stakes decisions is to be made about students' continuance or completion of their professional program. Students not only need to understand the structure of TWSM but also need to know how the resulting data will be used to describe their performance and what decisions will be made about their career choices with those data.

The first instructional steps in a preparation program when teaching about TWSM need to be selected with care. This chapter provides several suggested strategies to help readers accomplish the important task of effectively introducing students to TWSM. The following sections provide descriptions of introductory strategies for

- Developing readiness and prerequisite skills
- Direct or deductive instruction
- Inductive instruction
- Modeling activities

It is hoped these strategies will be useful in providing alternative methods to help students gain an overview of TWSM. If the strategies are effective, students should become more comfortable with TWSM and with the processes used in making decisions about their performance.

OVERVIEW STRATEGIES FOR DEVELOPING READINESS AND PREREQUISITE SKILLS

Some students grasp the purposes, processes, and expectations of TWSM by first seeing the whole rather than the parts. Others need to understand the parts before they can make sense of the whole. Teacher educators likely will need to account for both types of students as instruction about TWSM is initiated.

Readers may find it useful to provide instructional activities that include prerequisite yet concrete referents preceding students' initial contact with TWSM. Learning the processes and products associated with TWSM may be facilitated if students have had experiences that develop expectations as well as skills. Western faculty members have developed sets of activities where, just before the beginning of instruction about TWSM, students were involved in studying human learning—which is, of course, the central outcome of a work sample.

1. *How learning occurs.* A former Western faculty member, Jean Behrend, involved students in a two-step process. Students in Behrend's class discussed first how they learned best, then how they knew when they had learned. Behrend wanted, with the latter discussion, to help students understand the many possible manifestations of learning behaviors, feelings, problem solving, understanding. The students were also asked related questions: How do children learn in general? If a child answers a teacher's (test) question correctly, does that mean the child has learned and the outcome of instruction has been attained? What Behrend intended to come from this activity was that students would begin to understand the differences in how people learn, the difficulty in establishing whether learning has occurred, and the complexity in attempting to facilitate learning.

2. *A child's learning process.* Behrend's second activity in developing prerequisite skills for TWSM was to assign her students the task of analyzing a single child's learning experiences (see Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1). She gave her students the following assignment:

Table 5.1. Scoring Rubric for the Assignment for Teaching a Child

	3	2	1	0
Clarity	The purpose(s) for the interview and the reason(s) supporting the task selection are *clearly stated.*	The purpose(s) for the interview and/or the reason(s) supporting the task(s) selected are *occasionally ambiguous or illogical.*	The purpose(s) for the interview and/or the reason(s) supporting the task(s) selected are *often unclear, missing, confusing, or illogical.*	The purpose(s) for the interview and the reason(s) supporting the tasks selected are *regularly unclear, missing, confusing, or illogical.*
Specificity	Descriptions of events are *specific,* and judgments drawn are *clearly matched* to the examples.	Descriptions of events or examples cited for judgments drawn are *occasionally unclear, missing, confusing, or illogical.*	Descriptions of events and/or examples cited for judgments drawn are *often unclear, missing, confusing, or illogical.*	Descriptions of events and examples cited for judgments drawn are *seldom clear, present, straightforward, or logical.*
Thoughtfulness	The child's thoughts are *carefully analyzed,* and connections to class are *relevant and important.*	Analyses of the child's thoughts and connections to class discussions are *usually clear.*	Analyses of the child's thoughts and connections to class discussions are *often unclear.*	Analyses of the child's thoughts and connections to class discussions are *seldom clear.*

- Find out what the child knew about a selected topic, such as magnets, a math operation, or a Piagetian task.
- Bring the task to class and present it to classmates to get feedback on both the quality (complexity, developmental appropriateness, alignment to current curriculum) of the task and the directions given to the child.
- Provide a task for the child to attempt and then interview the child about the steps he/she employed in completing the task.
- Write about the interview activity, using the format shown in Figure 5.1.

This activity was intended to develop connections in students' minds regarding the importance of the following factors:

- Understanding that evidence of a child's learning comes from many sources
- Valuing clarity of purpose in working with children
- Stating a rationale for one's decisions
- Reflecting on one's performance, decisions, and interpretations
- Comprehending the centrality of pupils' learning to the education process

Figure 5.1. Interview Purpose, Format, and Criteria for Children's Learning

Purpose: To better understand children's thinking.

I. Format for written assignment

A. Purpose of interview
  - What were you trying to learn about the pupil(s)?
  - Why did you select the task(s) or question(s) you used?
  - Why did you choose the age of the child you did?

B. Description of interview
  - Where did the interview take place?
  - Whom did you interview? How was/were the child(ren) selected?
  - What happened during the interview?
  - How did the pupil(s) complete the task(s) or answer the question(s)?

C. Task(s) or questions and possible follow-up questions
  - What task(s) or question(s) did you ask pupil(s) to perform or answer?
  - How did you follow up on the child's responses to get at his/her thinking?

D. Reflection on interview
  - What did the responses tell you about the pupil's understanding?
  - What did you learn about yourself as an interviewer or teacher? Did the task(s) or questions match the purpose of the interview?
  - How might you do the interview differently next time?
  - What contextual factors do you think influenced the outcome?

E. Resources
  - What resources did you use to select your task(s) or question(s)?

II. Criteria for evaluating write-up (see Table 4.1 for scoring guide)

A. Clarity

Is the purpose of the interview and why you selected the task(s) or question(s) clear to the reader?
  - Is it clear what the task(s), questions, and possible follow-up questions were?
  - Is it clear what happened during the interview, what you said, and how the pupil(s) responded?

B. Specificity and evidence
  - Are the above descriptions vague, or do they use specific terminology to help the reader interpret the pupil's responses?
  - Is evidence, in the form of specific examples, used to support general statements?

C. Thoughtfulness and connections
  - Do your comments indicate you analyzed the child's responses carefully and thought about what they might mean in terms of the child's understanding?
  - Do your comments demonstrate connections to what you have been learning in class as well as among children's thinking, assessment, and teaching?

It is difficult for beginners to connect to what they think teaching entails unless they have experienced these principles. Yet each principle undergirds TWSM.

3. *A self-study project.* A somewhat similar activity is employed at Michigan State University to help undergraduate students develop what the initiator, Mark Girod, has called "practical frameworks" to understand the concepts underlying TWSM. Girod believes many of his students want to accept that ideas such as reflection, accountability, and alignment are as important as he has told them

they are, but the students have so little practical experience with those concepts that they really do not understand them. Girod requires his students to analyze their own learning processes—good and bad—and then write about their current experiences in their collegiate classes. The box "A Self-Study Project" (next page) describes Girod's experiences as he seeks to prepare his students to understand the very complex ideas underlying TWSM.

4. *Literacy learning.* In another comparable instructional activity, prospective teachers were asked to investigate the learning of a single child around a selected topic. Susan Wood, in a class preceding those Western courses in which students learned about TWSM, involved students in an assignment in which they analyzed a child's learning of literacy skills and subskills. The students were asked to "look deeply at the learning of one child" through the use of a variety of measures. The students then wrote a report of their work that included the following descriptions:

- Concept(s) they assessed
- The child's performance
- Measurement strategies they designed and employed
- The student's interpretation of the results

The prerequisite TWSM skills to be developed included expanding the student's repertoire of assessment strategies, aligning assessment to the need for reliable information about a concept, reflecting on one's skills in interpreting information, assessing pupils' performance, and analyzing the subskills inherent in a literacy skill.

5. *Integrating disciplines to solve "real problems."* The importance of integrating academic disciplines in a TWS is not readily apparent to most teacher education students. An activity used to develop that prerequisite understanding comes from a simulation employed by Helen Woods. She asked students to play various roles in a land-use simulation. Roles assigned included banker, forester, environmentalist, community member, service worker (police, restaurateur, travel agent), farmer, and politician. Students' roles were described for them before they came to a "town meeting," where their character tried to persuade others to accept their views regarding an important land-use decision.[1] When the town meeting was over, students were asked to review which disciplines were used in the discussion as the arguments were presented. This simulation was employed to model for students how in real life the use of interdisciplinary views is common when important decisions are made. The activity also modeled for students a project-based teaching strategy. The prerequisite skill emanating from the simulation was the importance of inter- and cross-disciplinary decision making for citizens. When students are asked to prepare inter- or cross-disciplinary TWS units, it is hoped they will be more likely to understand that such structures are important in helping pupils learn about the world, just as the students themselves are likely to deal with multiple disciplines as they make their important instructional decisions.

A Self-Study Project

by Mark Girod

Employing TWSM in beginning teacher preparation courses at Michigan State University, I continuously battle one significant problem. The ideas and attitudes necessary to adequately teach and think about improved teaching are often foreign to preservice teachers. Few students have thought about ways in which learning theory, principles of motivation, and even lesson structure align themselves in the successful everyday planning and execution of instruction. I spoke of knowledge structure, lesson flow, learning goals, and importance of ideas, but my students just nodded their heads and agreed that those sounded like good ideas. They lacked the personal experience, or at least the intellectual and experiential engagement, with those notions and how they are to be used in education. Without some practical framework on which to hang this new knowledge, my ideas were lost on my students. They just did not get it.

Out of this dilemma was designed the self-study project. Preservice students were given the opportunity to critically analyze and reflect on their needs as learners and the effectiveness of teaching. Although the structure and format of the project varied every time I used it, the central idea remained. Ernst von Glaserfeld, influential constructivist thinker, believed that human beings can know nothing except for knowledge they build for themselves.

Self-Study Structure

Students chose another university class in which they were currently enrolled to study and reflect on their learning and instruction. Students then wrote several journal entries of their experiences in and around this class across a period of several weeks. The number and frequency of these journals was a matter of the instructor's preference, but generally, because of the depth of reflection and analysis required, one a week was deemed adequate. My experience indicated that six journals provided enough time for the development of emergent themes but kept the scope of the project within reason.

A single journal entry consisted of the observations, analyses, and reflections on one class meeting. Entries could be structured in many ways, but a common, successful format included reflections before, during, and after class.

Before Class

In a short paragraph, students wrote about their thoughts and feelings regarding their attempts to prepare for that day's class, what they expected to do in class, and where their attention and motivation might be at that time.

During Class

I encouraged students to quickly jot down key words and phrases that would cue their memory later. I recommended that immediately after class students sit down and reread these in-class comments and put meat on the bones of the ideas and understanding that occurred to them. I asked students to write about the things that affected their learning during class. Often these elements included the instructor's enthusiasm, pace of the lesson, vitality of the ideas, personal engagement, and complexity (or simplicity) of ideas. Issues of community, value, and utility also pervaded student journals. This was an appropriate time to write about any "ah-has" that occurred during the lesson and what may have precipitated them. The "during class" section of the journal was longer than the others.

After Class

A day or two after their class meeting, I asked students to revisit the experience. Often temporal separation brings clarity to the experience. I asked students to write about their thoughts after class. Perhaps they had a meaningful conversation with someone about the relevant issues in their class, saw something about it on the news, or just put some of the pieces together on their own. Students were to focus on these events as well as their affective reactions to the experience.

The goal of all self-study journal writing is to ferret out the characteristics and precedents of an important and powerful learning experience.

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Concurrently, through in-class readings and discussion, we developed some of the ideas they may have faced in their self-studies. I covered issues in motivation, knowledge construction, models of effective instruction, and affect in education while my students were in the position to see them in action and to feel their impact.

The culmination of the self-study project was a final paper incorporating all their journal entries. I asked students to reread their journal entries and look for themes or main ideas that seemed to emerge from their "data." Usually, although occasionally with a little help, students were able to develop one or two ideas they felt were intimately connected to effective learning and instruction. Their final paper allowed them to write around their experiences and comment in their journals to produce a coherent and complete thought. The result for students was a meaningful set of schemas regarding learning and teaching to which they could add and on which they could build new knowledge about education.

Rubric for Self-Study Paper	Criteria: Gradation of Quality					
Introduction (5 points)	5	4	3	2	1	0
Introduction to class	___	___	___	___	___	___
Powerful statements	___	___	___	___	___	___
Themes (5 points)						
Importance	___	___	___	___	___	___
Logic of choice	___	___	___	___	___	___
Relevance	___	___	___	___	___	___
Depth of analysis (25 points)						
Pushes thinking	___	___	___	___	___	___
Rigor of examination	___	___	___	___	___	___
Looks across journal entries	___	___	___	___	___	___
Supported by readings & class content	___	___	___	___	___	___
Connected to personal experience	___	___	___	___	___	___
Connection to future teaching (10 points)						
Useful knowledge	___	___	___	___	___	___
Thoughtful analysis	___	___	___	___	___	___
Practical concerns	___	___	___	___	___	___
Creative discussion	___	___	___	___	___	___
Clarity (5 points)						
Spelling	___	___	___	___	___	___
Mechanics	___	___	___	___	___	___
Typed	___	___	___	___	___	___
Properly cited	___	___	___	___	___	___
Flow	___	___	___	___	___	___

Total ________ out of 50 possible points

Jen, a sophomore elementary education major, stated the power of the self-study in her final paper: "It would be almost impossible to understand someone else's strengths and difficulties in learning if you cannot understand your own." It has been my experience, and Jen would likely concur, that the self-study project provided students with the opportunity to explore their innate understandings about learning and their naive beliefs about effective instruction. Self-study provided the opportunity to reflect on the necessity of proper planning, preparation, and selection of learning goals as well as the teacher behaviors required to execute them. The result can be potent and productive in facilitating later teacher work samples.

DIRECT INSTRUCTION

Several graduates of the Western Oregon teacher education programs were interviewed regarding their opinions about how effective the instruction had been regarding TWS. One young woman described the introduction she received to TWS in a very colorful way:

> I literally had no idea what a work sample was or what they meant by a work sample until I was fully done with mine. And I would have really appreciated [an example]. Like, "Okay, here's something you can look at." (Ayres, McConney, Schalock, Cuthbertson, & Bartelheim, 1997)

Clearly, this person was unhappy because no one met her need for a concrete introduction to the TWS. Another person, with apparently the same orientation to learning, stated a similar view:

> I think each professor presented a little bit here, and a little bit there, and in their own different ways. But it would have been nice somewhere early on to have someone present the whole concept in very simple terms so we had some kind of a grasp of the big picture. It would have made everything else much easier; less stressful. (Ayres et al., 1997)[2]

Historically, teacher education students have complained that teacher educators never clearly explain what they are expected to learn. We are often viewed as being diffuse and obfuscating our purposes and, for some cynics, we are thought to involve students in lessons without any purposes whatsoever. Consequently, some teacher educators prefer to be very direct in their instruction. Several direct strategies for introducing TWSM are presented here.

Visual Portrayals

1. *Work sample process.* Providing visual portrayals of TWSM is one of the first steps used by at least three faculty members at Western to provide an initial description of where TWS skills will be learned. Jean Behrend presents a structure similar to that shown in Figure 5.2. Behrend's flow chart presents the sequence students will likely follow as they develop their TWSs.

2. *Work sample components.* Helen Woods uses a more complex visual portrayal (see Figure 5.3). Woods's overview of TWS clearly shows that the description of the setting in which the TWS was implemented is to be described first. One element in Figure 5.3 needs further explanation. In the far right center, a double arrow portrays two discrete strategies for assessing TWSs. Some faculty require that students submit their plans for evaluation before implementing their TWS. Other faculty review the quality of TWS plans only when the completed unit is submitted. That variation in assessment necessitates the double-ended arrow in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.2. Behrend's Work Sample Process

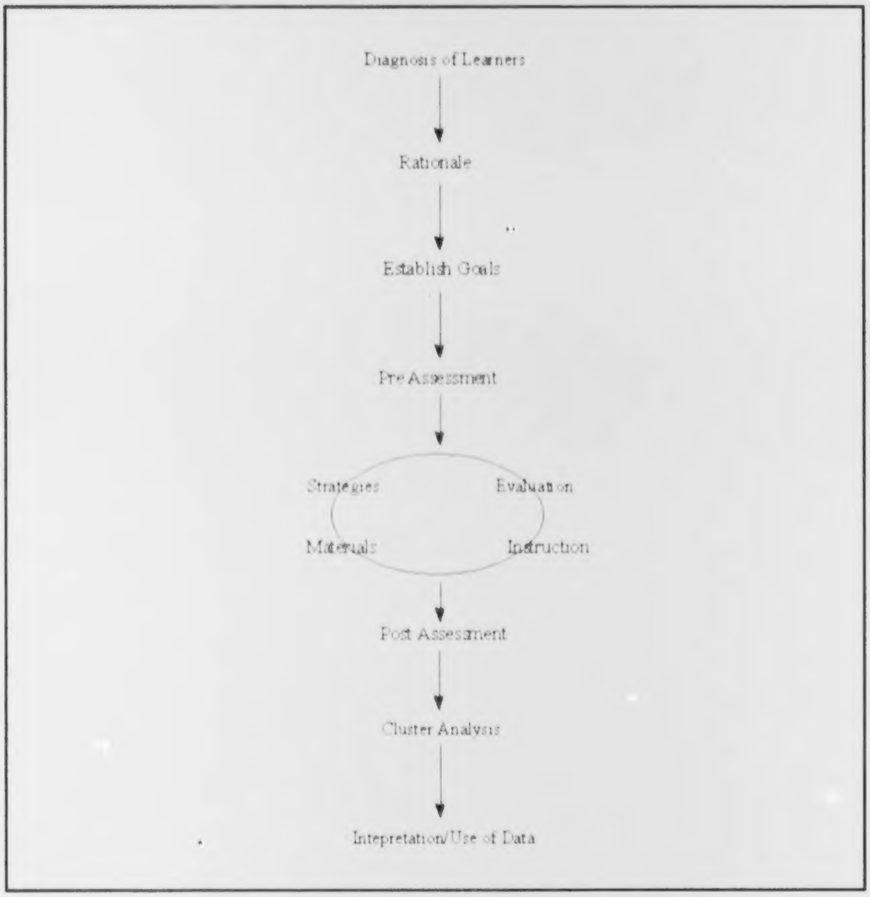
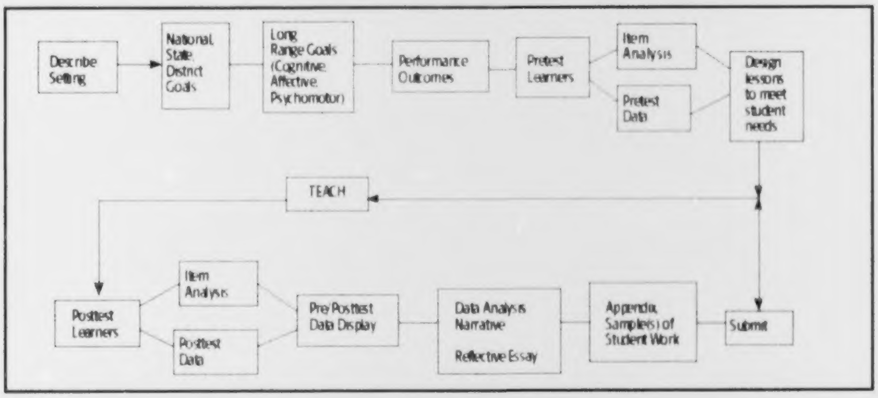

Diagnosis of Learners
Rationale
Establish Goals
Pre Assessment
Strategies
Evaluation
Materials
Instruction
Post Assessment
Cluster Analysis
Intepretation/Use of Data

Figure 5.3. Woods's Work Sample Flow Chart


Describe Setting
National, State, District Goals
Long Range Goals (Cognitive, Affective, Psychomotor)
Performance Outcomes
Pretest Learners
Item Analysis
Pretest Data
Design lessons to meet student needs
TEACH
Posttest Learners
Item Analysis
Posttest Data
Pre/Posttest Data Display
Data Analysis Narrative
Reflective Essay
Appendix, Sample(s) of Student Work
Submit

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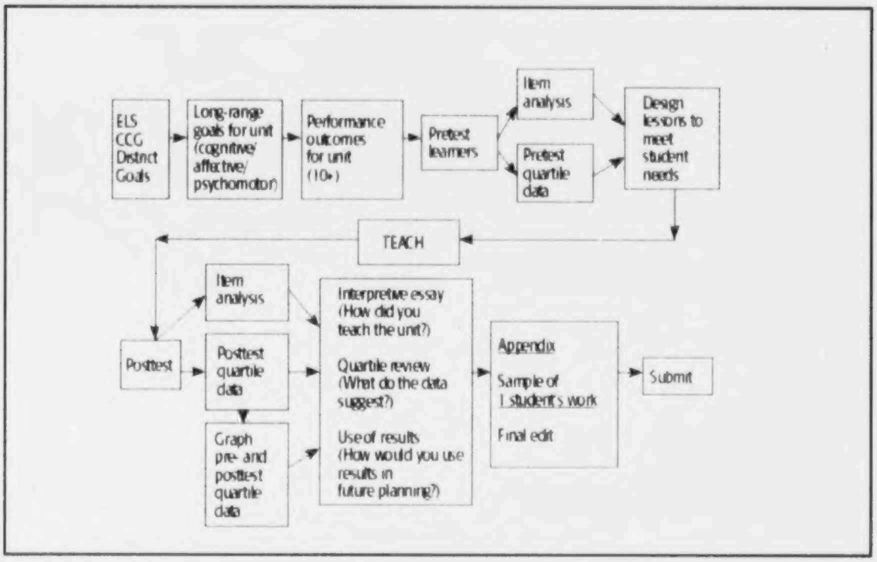
3. *Work sample expectations.* In a variant of Woods's format, Jacqueline Kyle uses a visual that allows students to infer expectations for several of the components, i.e., that performance outcomes (behavioral objectives) will be turned into test items (see Figure 5.4). As opposed to the flow chart in Figure 5.3, Figure 5.4 indicates that Kyle intends to assess students' plans before they are implemented.

Figure 5.4. Kyle's Work Sample Example


ELS
CCG
District
Goals
Long-range goals for unit (cognitive/ affective/ psychomotor)
Performance outcomes for unit (10+)
Pretest learners
Item analysis
Pretest quartile data
Design lessons to meet student needs
TEACH
Posttest
Item analysis
Posttest quartile data
Graph pre- and posttest quartile data
Interpretive essay (How did you teach the unit?)
Quartile review (What do the data suggest?)
Use of results (How would you use results in future planning?)
Appendix
Sample of 1 student's work
Final edit
Submit

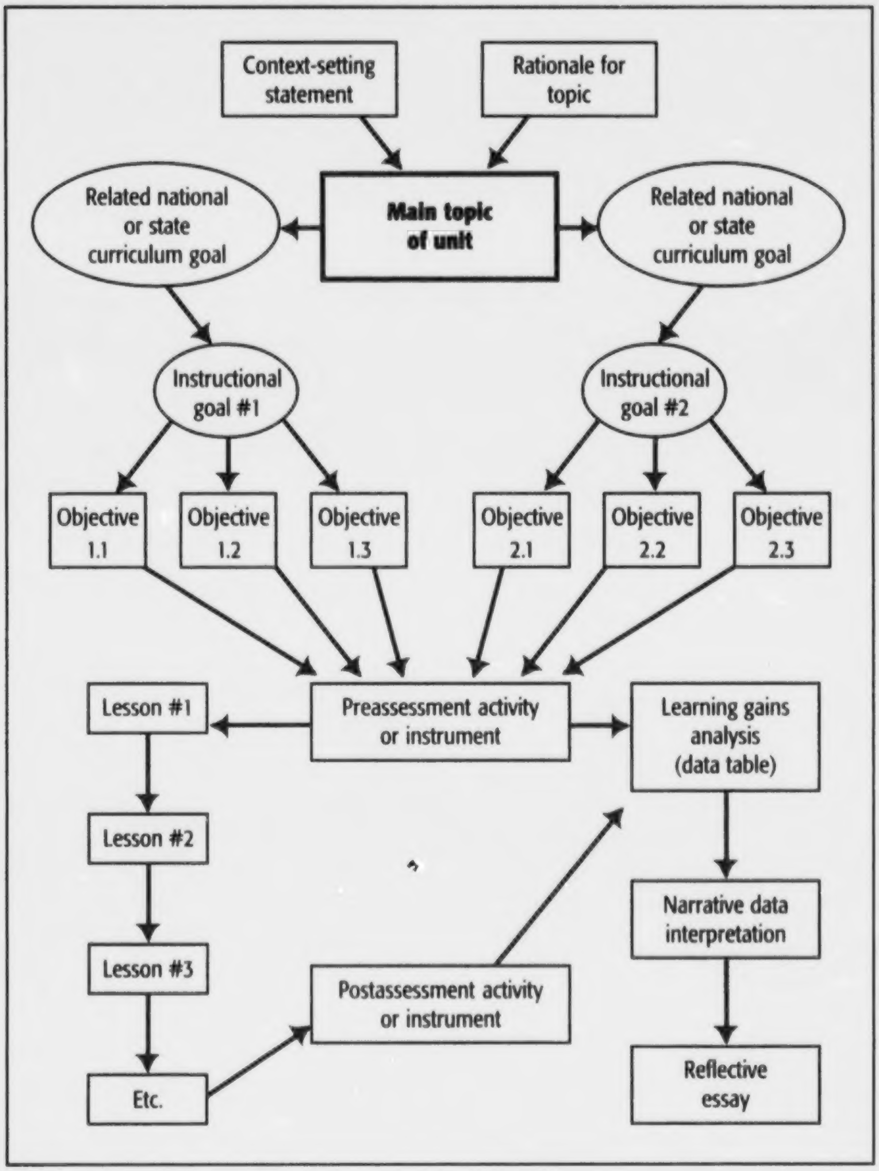
4. *Components of a TWS from a concept map.* Jim Long wants his students to see the components of a TWS and how each is related to other parts (see Figure 5.5). In that concept map, Long is able to show not only the major components of a TWS but also the sequence in which those components are developed. After reviewing Long's map, students began to appreciate why they needed to select their goal statements before beginning to develop instructional and assessment activities.

WRITTEN DIRECTIONS

1. *Work sample guidelines.* Some students find an overview most helpful when they can see and/or attach words to the TWS components. Such students need to be able to internalize what is expected of them as they develop each part of a teacher work sample. For those students, class discussions around one of David Wright's handouts would likely be most helpful. Wright's assignment required students to prepare and implement their first TWS. (This assignment took place during the academic term preceding student teaching.) As shown in Figure 5.6, an interesting concept embedded in Wright's approach is that students are not required to develop all their lesson plans in a "formal format."

Several faculty find that once students portray their competence in writing lesson plans, it is somewhat wasteful to require them to continue demonstrating that skill. In Wright's case, he may not be quite sure all his students are ready to

Figure 5.5. Long's Concept Map for a TWS


Context-setting statement
Rationale for topic
Related national or state curriculum goal
Main topic of unit
Related national or state curriculum goal
Instructional goal #1
Instructional goal #2
Objective 1.1
Objective 1.2
Objective 1.3
Objective 2.1
Objective 2.2
Objective 2.3
Lesson #1
Preassessment activity or instrument
Learning gains analysis (data table)
Lesson #2
Lesson #3
Narrative data interpretation
Postassessment activity or instrument
Etc.
Reflective essay

move away from the structural expectation of writing lessons in a very structured format. He allows his students to employ a shorter form, more like what they will employ as practicing teachers, for half their lessons.

Wright is quite specific about his expectations for the components of a TWS as well as the order in which they will be presented. An advantage of this type of instruction is that students who wish to get right to work on their TWS may do so, and, if they have a format such as what Wright uses, they can become more independent.

Figure 5.6. Wright's Written Guidelines for Teacher Work Sample Expectations

During both Step II and III, you will be planning, teaching, and assessing an integrated instructional plan (one in each step). When completed, each plan will become a work sample that will be part of your portfolio. Your portfolio will be something you can share with prospective employers to demonstrate, among many attributes, your ability to plan, teach, and assess. Even more important, it will show that your teaching brings about learning in children.

To start the process, you will need to meet with your classroom teacher to identify a topic (or focus) for your integrated instructional plan and several (at least three) overall objectives. These overall objectives should vary by domain and taxonomic level, i.e., not just be cognitive and not just be lower level objectives. In addition, before you proceed any further, you need to gather information to see whether the pupils can already meet the stated overall objectives. Data resulting from this assessment are to be tallied using the clustering format for each objective.* Be sure to consult with your college supervisor as you work on this step.

Once your integrated instructional objectives have been assessed and you know you will be helping pupils learn something they did not know before, you are ready to begin your planning. You will need to plan about 10 lessons to move the class toward your objectives. For instance, you may have an objective where the pupils will compare and contrast at least three perspectives of the North and South on agriculture, manufacturing, and religion around the time of the Civil War. To move the pupils toward that objective, at least one lesson would be developed around each of the three issues (agriculture, manufacturing, and religion) to help the pupils become knowledgeable so they can compare and contrast. It might also be necessary to develop a lesson focusing on the processes of comparing and contrasting. These lessons, then, all focus on just one integrated instructional goal and become part of the package of 10 or so lessons.

At least five lesson plans need to follow the formal format taught in the Step I class. Other lessons must include, minimally, an objective and procedure. All lessons will become part of the integrated instructional plan and work sample. In addition to the 10 or so lesson plans, other information needs to be included so this unit will be a well-developed work sample. Please be sure you follow the work sample outline below as you put materials together. Evaluation of your work will be facilitated if you arrange your materials in the following order.

Work Sample Outline

1. *Overview of Integrated Instructional Plan*

In the overview, include

a. Title
b. Description of the topic or focus
c. Related subject matter areas
d. Related Oregon outcomes
e. Related school district goals
f. Description of the children who were taught this plan, including their ages
g. When the plan was taught

2. *Rationale for the Integrated Instructional Plan*

In the rationale, include a discussion of

a. Significance of the focus or topic to these children in this school
b. How this unit is expected to facilitate growth in the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains
c. How this unit will likely facilitate higher level conceptualization
d. Why you chose to design the plan the way you did

Figure 5.6. (continued)

3. *Integrated Instructional Unit Objectives*

List three or more overall objectives for this unit. They are not necessarily lesson plan objectives but the objectives toward which a set of the lessons may converge. Include in this section a discussion of your preassessment for these objectives and the data collected so the reader knows what the pupils' abilities were before you started instruction.

4. *Lesson Plan*

There must be no fewer than 10 lesson plans, at least five of which use the formal format.

5. *Master List of Materials*

List all the instructional materials you needed to complete the integrated plan. This master list will quickly identify for the reader the variety of materials you used. The preparation of the list will also be helpful to you as you gather materials before starting instruction.

6. *Assessment*

In the assessment section, include

a. A description of the assessment procedures used to pre- and postassess the class on the integrated instructional plan's objectives; be sure to include copies of any paper-and-pencil formats used and copies of any scoring guides
b. Pre- and postassessment data on each child for each integrated plan objective using the cluster format
c. Discussion of the results. Be sure to address each cluster separately for each objective. You may also include any information that might explain any unusual results for individual children

7. *Critique*

This is your opportunity to honestly and thoughtfully discuss how things went. Be sure to address the planning, teaching, and assessment procedures used. Provide information about what went particularly well for you and things you would change if you were to do this again. This provides evidence that you are a thoughtful, reflective teacher.

8. *Bibliography*

List the sources you used to develop this integrated instructional plan. Be sure to use standard bibliographic sources.

9. *Other*

In this final section, feel free to include other materials you think help to demonstrate your ability to plan, teach, and assess. Limit the number of items in this section but do keep in mind such things as handouts, examples of pupils' work, or audio or video recordings of your teaching.

---

* In brief, *clustering* refers to ordering pupil scores on an assessment, then grouping scores into naturally occurring sets of scores or clusters. See chapter 9 for a full discussion of the concept of clustering.

2. *Using brief, simplified examples.* Some students feel comfortable with a new assignment only if they can see a completed example. Yet sometimes an instructor can provide a referent that is so sophisticated the student will be overwhelmed or so confused by the complexity that the example would be of limited value. Gwenda Rice is familiar with the need to provide her class with clear, sharp examples. She made available to her class a very simplified mini-TWS a student had prepared in a previous term that provided an example of work around outcomes and assessment plans. Rice also gave the students an abbreviated list of criteria for the class to use as they evaluated the mini-work sample. Rice then discussed the components as well as the indicators of quality they assigned. (The example and criteria are found in Appendix C.) The students reported that they found the simplified example helpful in clarifying what is involved and the general expectations for two TWS components.

3. *Guidelines for practicing teachers.* Russell French from the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, worked with a group of Louisiana 1st-year teachers who were to demonstrate their professional skills through a TWS. These new teachers had not experienced a TWS during their recently completed preparation program. To help them get started, French first gave them a brief definition of a TWS, then drew a parallel to previous work these teachers had experienced:

> A teacher work sample is a 1-6 week unit of instruction which includes (a) plans for instruction and assessment that are aligned with the learning outcomes desired, (b) the teaching of the unit, and (c) the collection, interpretation, and reflection upon evidence of pupil progress toward the attainment of the desired learning outcomes.
>
> In some ways, the preparation of a teacher work sample resembles what you did in your preparation to become a teacher; i.e. prepare plans for units of work you might/would teach. However, you probably didn't have to include in your planning and instruction some of the contextual factors you are asked to include now. Further, you probably did not have to conduct pre- and post-assessments, and summarize, analyze, and reflect upon the results. These processes may be new to you. They may be areas in which you will want a good deal of mentor advice. (French, 1997, p. 2)

French's work came from a project where 1st-year teachers were given training to prepare them to seek a permanent license. The project, the New Teacher Assessment Program, was sponsored by the Louisiana Department of Education. French gave his group of teachers a set of specific directions that clarified the components of a TWS they were to provide (see Figure 5.7).

Figure 5.7. Directions for 1st-Year Teachers Regarding TWS Components

Your unit and the objectives you select must be related to the Louisiana Content Standards for this subject area(s) or to the current state and local curriculum frameworks/guides if new content standards have not yet been approved.

1. The unit may be within one subject area or across two or more. List all subject areas included.
2. Describe the content (topic, knowledge, skills) of the unit.
3. Indicate the intended number of days or class periods.
4. Specify the objectives/outcomes to be accomplished by pupils. There should be two or more objectives for a unit.
5. Explain why you selected the objectives/outcomes for item #4. Why are they important? *Remember* that one of *the requirements for your unit is that it be related to the Louisiana Content Standards or current state or local curriculum guides.* The unit might also be directly related to pupil knowledge and skills that are identified as priority areas in your school's improvement plan, it might have come from your analysis of student test data, or you might have other reasons for selecting the objectives you have specified.

Develop an assessment plan that will permit the continuous monitoring of progress each pupil is making toward the outcomes desired.

As you have previously learned from your Teacher Orientation Manual and your mentor, you are expected to plan and implement systematic assessment of pupil progress, just as you plan instruction.

Your assessment plan for this unit starts with a *preassessment to determine each pupil's entry-level knowledge and skills in relationship to the outcomes/stated objectives.* Preassessment does not mean paper/pencil pretest, although that form of assessment may be appropriate for some objectives and some classes. The preassessment may take whatever form is appropriate, but it must yield information about each pupil's entry-level knowledge/skills and information from which each pupil's learning gains as a result of the instruction can be assessed . . . .

Provide a description of how you assessed pupil entry-level knowledge and skills and an explanation of how you used the preassessment results in modifying your original planning for the unit.

Source: French, 1997, p. 4

INDUCTIVE INSTRUCTION

Though direct instruction regarding TWS is often admired, sometimes it is not effective for all students. One recent graduate, now teaching, said the following when she was interviewed about whether she was introduced to TWS effectively:

> If they had repeated the instruction [we wouldn't have heard it]. Okay, this is like my mom saying, "You'll do it now and you'll appreciate it later." And we'd probably just laugh and say, "Uh, huh. Whatever!" (Ayres et al., 1997)

Some faculty find the employment of inductive teaching strategies effective for their students and satisfying for themselves. This section presents examples of such overview activities Western faculty have found to be effective.

1. *Inferring TWS components.* To develop comprehension of the components expected in a TWS and to develop an understanding of the elements associated with a high-quality work sample, George Cabrera uses an approach that involves all his students simultaneously. Cabrera gathered together four TWSs that he abridged and put into a notebook, organized around the required components. In other words, the goals and objectives for the four work samples are collated and shown together, not with their original TWS. Cabrera's students, in small groups, are given a copy of the notebook and asked to read the four example components, such as the goals and objectives. The students are then engaged in two activities: comparing the sections to describe similarities they find within the components and contrasting the sections to develop distinctions between the levels of quality noted for each component. While Cabrera reports the approach is very time-consuming, he believes students develop a clear understanding of not only what is expected in each component but also what they need to provide to have their work judged as excellent.

2. *Rating TWSs to learn components.* Christy Perry undertook a similar activity, giving students a sample TWS and asking them to rate the work sample using the analytic scoring system discussed in Table 3.5. Perry indicates that the students became familiar with the components as well as with the varying quality levels in each component. They also acquired at least a rudimentary understanding of how their work samples were to be assessed. This activity, which involved a great deal of class interaction and discussion, was time-consuming but viewed by the instructor as being worth the expenditure to achieve a high level of understanding.

3. *Microteaching to learn TWS processes.* Randall Engle used another inductive approach when he asked students to develop a microteaching unit. The unit was used to instruct classmates. The students put together, after some instruction, a mini-work sample that focused on only one lesson and its corresponding plan. While the students taught, their lessons were videotaped. Engle completed a scoring rubric while reviewing each student's videotape (see Figure 5.8), then counseled the student about his/her performance. The purposes of the microteaching activity were to provide students a concrete referent for future discussions of a full TWS and to provide a guided teaching experience where feedback, written and oral, was extended.

Providing an overview of TWSM can be done inductively when students are aided in constructing a cognitive set regarding the components as well as expectations for quality. While all three of the examples provided in this section are viewed by their initiators as being quite effective, the activities all share the same characteristic: They are all very time-consuming.

ACTIVITIES FOR MODELING TWSM

After a discussion of the components and the quality expectations for TWSs, at least one faculty member sets out to complete the introduction by modeling a

Figure 5.8. Microteaching Rubric

Name of student

	Criteria	Needs improvement	1	2	3	4	5	Very effective
I.	Lesson plan							
	Clearly stated goal							
	Rationale							
II.	Focus on concepts of lesson							
	Sequencing of events							
	Evaluation tied to objective(s)							
III.	Delivery							
	Focusing event							
	Eye contact							
	Pacing							
	Monitor/adjust							
	Teacher verbal behavior							
	Closure							
	Materials							
IV.	Overall							

Comments

few of the components. The intent is to acquaint students with behaviors that are associated with some of the components.

1. *Modeling alignment decisions.* Susan Wood believes that presenting clear course goals followed by equally clear daily class objectives helps students to see those aspects of planning modeled. Close to the end of the college term, Wood discusses with the students what goals and objectives for her children's literature course meant, what track her instruction would have likely needed to take, and the direction her assessment activities should have followed. Then Wood reviews where her instruction or assessment may have varied from what she and the students discussed.

2. *Modeling the utility of assessment.* In another course preceding the beginning of TWS instruction, Wood models assessment tasks for her students. In a literacy class, Wood asks her students to complete the Denver Reading Attitude Survey (1993) as a pretest and assesses their reading habits and purposes. Near the end of the term, Wood again administers the survey and the skills tests. (The students regularly report major changes in their attitudes toward books as well as changes in their reading habits.) Wood and her students discuss how they each interpret the results (aggregated by the class, not by individuals) and

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what they each think the data imply for her instruction. For most students, this is the first time an instructor has discussed the degree of effectiveness her instruction had in bringing about the goals and objectives sought.

SUMMARY

Introducing TWSM to students requires complex decisions. Teacher education instructors must choose what they believe about instruction.

- Should it be provided directly, or should it be done in such a way that students can construct their own understandings of a TWS?
- What components should be included in a TWS? Should a mini-TWS or a complete TWS be used in early instructional activities?
- What exemplifies high quality in a TWS?

It may be wise to select two instructional approaches, such as a direct approach where students are told what components will be expected (like David Wright's materials) followed by an inductive approach (like Christy Perry's) where the students rate a TWS using the scoring guides shown in Table 3.5. And a brave instructor might follow the lead of Susan Wood and model at least a few of the TWS components.

NOTES

1. This activity is very familiar to Oregon students, who commonly see exactly such discussions reported on TV.
2. Graduates from any teacher education program (or any other professional program) are likely to claim the expectations for their performance were never clearly explained. But the point is clearly made here: Many students believe they best understand their course of study if the instruction begins by focusing on the structure, time lines, and expectations of the program.

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Chapter 6

Concepts and Skills Necessary to Plan a Teacher Work Sample

by Gerald R. Girod, Western Oregon University

Goals for Teacher Educators

1. After reading this chapter, teacher educators will know several approaches to teaching students how to
    - Select important TWS topics and goals.
    - Align goals, objectives, and instruction.
    - State a persuasive rationale for selecting each major component of a TWS plan.
2. They will be familiar with field performance measures for assessing TWS goals and objectives and instructional plans.

Objectives for Teacher Education Students

After reading this chapter, teacher educators will be able to help their students attain the following outcomes:

Objectives	**Sources of measures**
1. Select the curriculum area(s), goals, and benchmarks for a teaching unit that will form the basis for the unit's outcomes.	Tables 6.4 & 6.6; Figure 6.10
2. Gather information to facilitate description of pupils' abilities in terms of the curriculum area or areas.	Table 6.6
3. Design and order the unit's enabling objectives for each goal in a manner that reflects accurate and clear content.	Tables 6.3, 6.4, 6.6, & 6.7
4. Devise instructional procedures and materials to be used in aiding pupils to accomplish the unit's outcomes in a manner consistent with research on how children learn.	Table 6.6
5. Explain the rationale supporting the decisions behind the alignment of the goals and objectives, the choice of instructional strategies and materials, and the adaptations provided.	Tables 6.2 & 6.4; Figures 6.14-6.16; *see also* Table 8.1
6. Select outcomes that are "important."	Table 6.2

Prospective teachers will find that developing a plan for implementing their first teacher work sample (TWS) is a daunting task. They are asked to accomplish numerous complex professional missions at the same time they are trying to determine where the practicum school is, learn how to pronounce the cooperating teacher's name, and even decide what to do if a child spits on them.

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Many of the planning tasks for a TWS must seem to students like academic trivia. It is somewhat unrealistic for us to expect teacher education students to believe they really need to comprehend concepts such as *alignment, scope and sequence, developmentally appropriate, societal importance*, and *measurable outcome* when they are uncertain they can even capture the attention of their pupils when they stand up to teach.

While it may not seem so, the question What do I do if a child spits on me? is directly related to a TWS, for the decision about how to handle such an act is related to one's instructional and management plans. Teacher educators know well that much of effective classroom management is a result of insightful instructional planning. The problem for teacher educators is to try to persuade beginning teachers that this statement, which all veteran teachers seem to espouse, is actually true. The difficulty for prospective teachers in accepting the principle that most classroom management problems are related to or caused by inadequate planning likely comes from the fact that the principle is complex to learn, difficult to teach, and not appropriate to the teacher candidates' learning readiness. We want them to acquire planning concepts that are often too abstract in terms of their preparedness to learn. Nevertheless, teacher education students who plan well will likely find their classroom experiences more pleasant, and when pupils' behavior is unacceptable, they will be better prepared to deal with it.

Therefore, students do need to learn to distinguish goals from objectives, aligned from nonaligned objectives and measures, and simple from taxonomically complex outcomes; to engage in task analysis; to develop cross-disciplinary (integrated) plans; and, if they are working in a standards-based school, to learn how to use instructional benchmarks. Students who acquire those professional skills are more likely to run a well-organized, focused, responsive, and humane classroom. In such a setting, pupils are more likely to be rewarded for good behavior, acknowledged as worthy people, and appreciative of the teacher's concern and competence.

We believe teacher education students who learn how to develop the products and perform the processes of teacher work sample methodology (TWSM) will more likely provide classrooms conducive to learning. The intent of this chapter is to explain how faculty at Western instruct students in developing an effective plan for a TWS. The chapter addresses selection of an "important" topic for a TWS and goals and objectives for alignment decisions.

Chapter 9 discusses our suggestions for planning, implementing, and interpreting assessment activities, the other major component of an instructional unit.

SELECTING AN IMPORTANT TWS TOPIC

To new teacher eductation faculty, spending instructional time to help students select a topic or focus or theme for a TWS may seem unnecessary. It is not. Too often, those who are veteran teacher educators have seen instructional units that were immature, inadequate, focused on the teacher's interests rather than the children's needs, and unconnected to the goals of the state, district, or school. I remember well arguing with a young woman about the value to her pupils of her intended unit on stamp collection. Unfortunately, all she was able to state about the need for the unit was "it will be interesting." Though she may have had some intent related to the needs of society, her major goal seemed to be to tell a captive audience about her hobby for several instructional hours. Furthermore, she saw no well-intentioned purpose for me to ask how her unit had any connection to the district's goals or to the needs of each child in her class. My error was that I had not earlier provided in this student's on-campus program of instruction guidelines for selecting a topic for a TWS that was, as Western professor Susan Wood has said, "one that is a deeply significant concept." When I began the conversation, the student thought I did not appreciate her skills as a teacher. I won the argument but only because I was in a position of authority. Her discomfort, I have always thought, was the result of my instructional omission.

Another planning error emanates from not preparing prospective teachers to think about important TWS goals. So often they start with an activity they want their pupils to experience, then work backward, trying to find the appropriate goals and objectives that will align with the activity. A former Western professor, Paul Yeiter, pointed out that when a misfit in alignment occurs, instructors note that students usually think those planning problems are caused by the demands of TWSM rather than their planning skills. In their terms, if you, the instructor, did not expect them to put together such an unrealistic unit, these problems would never have occurred. The bottom line, of course, is that prospective teachers often start with an important activity (important to themselves) rather than an important societal topic. We must accept the responsibility to teach students to select important topics for their TWSs.

Prerequisite Concepts for Selecting an Important Topic in a TWS

The topic chosen for a TWS unit should be governed by the curriculum goals for a district or school. These goals are the source for TWS topics. But the spin a student puts on a topic can make it seem new and exciting. The job of the college supervisor is to help prospective teachers explore the potential of all topics. It is important to not allow one's own prejudices to take over when examining the potential of a topic selected by a student teacher or that handed down by the classroom teacher. As Western's Gary Welander has pointed out, an environmental science unit could take as its central theme *clothes dryer lint* and quite possibly capture the interest of children while still providing them with an academically honest experience.

Welander believes *a topic needs to be important to the child as well as to society.* To establish the worthiness of a topic, however, is the prospective teacher's role. The prospective teacher needs to explain in the rationale for the unit why a

Whose Words Are the Right Words?

Gerald R. Girod, Mark Schalock, and H. Del Schalock

As prospective teachers begin learning the terminology associated with planning lessons and units, they can become confused by the language used to describe educational outcomes. Even authors who have established reputations for clarity use very different words to describe the same concepts. Students (and likely their teacher education faculty as well) are often confused by the plethora of words used to describe the purposes for education. This box clarifies our use of words in this handbook to describe educational outcomes. First, we define the variables one must account for in describing educational outcomes; then we define the terminology.

Defining Variables

Four variables need to be accounted for as one describes educational outcomes:

- The time frame anticipated for acquiring various outcomes
- The level of specificity expected in the outcome statement
- The assessment form(s) required for various outcomes
- The author of an outcome

The following table displays the relationship between time, specificity, and assessment form in descriptions of curricular outcomes. The notes following the table clarify the author responsible for generating each type of educational outcome.

Curricular Outcomes or Targets

Time Frame	Specificity	Assessment Form, Author, and Purposes
1 Systemwide or long-term goals (several years)	2 Content standards and goals (quite general)	3 Systemwide, standardized assessment (summative)
4 Course or year (typically 1 to 3 years)	5 Benchmarks (general)	6 Multiple lines generated by district and teacher (principally summative)
7 Unit (several days)	8 En route behaviors (fairly specific)	9 Unit assessments generated by teacher (principally formative)
10 Lesson (typically 1 to 3 days)	11 Lesson objectives/enablers (quite specific)	12 Informal/formal (formative)

Outcomes Selected by an Agency, Organization, or District–Driven by Goals

Box 1. Scope of the curriculum as developed by an agency, organization, or district. Outcomes are systemwide, requiring several years of instruction from several faculty to attain.

Box 2. Scope, often organized around academic or professional disciplines, devised by an organization, agency, or district.

Box 3. Many states use nationally or state-normed standardized tests. Though they may be administered by a teacher, they are typically constructed and scored at a state or national level. (Some large districts may develop their own assessments, such as CIM, CAM, and PASS in Oregon.) These tests are best used in describing performance for large groups of pupils.

Box 4. Outcomes organized by grade level or for a class (welding, sophomore health) typically devised by an agency or district. They are systemwide outcomes sequenced to be attained usually at a specified grade level. They are aligned with long-term goals and are to be taught by a few faculty members.

Box 5. Outcomes that will be assessed at a specific grade level typically selected by an agency or district. Stated more specifically than long-term goals, they identify the type of behaviors sought.

Box 6. Data gathered from a variety of sources to determine the degree of learning attained by the child toward the outcome. The teacher may be designated as the gatherer, but the sources to be tapped are typically selected by an agency or district.

Outcomes Selected by a Classroom Teacher–Driven by Objectives

Box 7.	Outcomes to be attained across several days of instruction. Outcomes are selected by the teacher and aligned with benchmarks.
Box 8.	Behaviors expected by the teacher of the child after instruction has occurred.
Box 9.	Assessments devised and undertaken by the teacher to determine the child's progress toward unit outcomes.
Box 10.	Short-term instruction to help children attain a unit outcome.
Box 11.	The very specific outcomes children are to acquire and the criterion levels they are to attain after daily instruction. Outcomes are aligned with en route behaviors.
Box 12.	Assessments devised and undertaken by a teacher to discern whether daily outcomes have been attained. Assessment may be quite informal but will provide information about each child's progress toward daily outcomes.

The outcomes from top to bottom in column 2 become more and more specific; that is, objectives differ from goals in that objectives contain very specific verbs ("match" versus "appreciate") and the criteria children are to meet are much more specific ("state at least three" versus "come to know about"). During measurement of the attainment of general goals, the information gathered best serves the purposes of the agency, organization, or district in determining how successful children were in attaining a major goal (summative). Those same data, teachers report, have limited value for them in providing guidance for instruction (formative). At the lowest level of specificity and type of outcome, however, the purposes are reversed. Assessment at that level has great value in guiding instructional decisions (formative) but holds limited value for a district, agency, or organization (summative).

Defining Terminology

Goals. Curriculum developers, particularly those farthest removed from classrooms, propose as the purposes for education very general statements (e.g., "relate geometric ideas to measurement and number sense," found in Oregon Department of Education, 1997, p. 68). Such statements are typically called *goals*. The current professional literature uses terms such as "standards," "targets," and "valued outcomes" as the names of the types of goal statements discussed. Some authors, in an attempt to be more distinctive, name their statements of educational purposes *performance descriptors*, *performance standards*, and *proficiencies*. In Oregon, we talk about *essential learning skills*, *common curriculum goals*, *content standards*, *benchmarks*, and *performance standards*. Yet all these terms describe goals–general outcomes the nation's schools, a state's schools, a district's schools, and, in some locations, a grade level's classes are expected to achieve. Typically, teachers do not construct goal statements. Rather, they select goals and then refine them into quite specific objectives matched to the needs of their pupils.

Benchmarks. A more recent term that has begun to be used in the discussions of school curricula is *benchmark*. Whenever we assign assessment activities for a goal to a specific grade level, that goal is called a benchmark. As Ruth Mitchell was careful to clarify, a benchmark is not a goal to be attained by that specific grade level. Rather, the benchmark states when an educational agency will assess how pupils are doing in achieving the purposes. "Benchmarks are the stages of development where we anchor the standards [goals]. They are points at which we check up on progress" (1996, p. 13). Benchmarks are goals plus their corresponding assessments that are assigned to a specific grade level.

Objectives. Goal statements do not, however, explicate the specific outcomes a teacher needs as a focus to help students learn. Most authors call those specific outcomes *objectives*. The difference between goals and objectives, for us and many other writers, is that the latter are measurable or assessable. While goals are quite general (e.g., "reflect upon and evaluate own writing," Oregon Department of Education, 1997, p. 30), objectives are quite specific in that they have verbs that describe a clear behavior from the student (e.g., "students will match on a worksheet different types of clothes to different types of weather") and a criterion ("at least 5 of 7 correct"). Often, unit objectives identify only the desired behavior, but daily objectives, to be of ultimate clarity to pupils, state the degree of proficiency required to ensure that they have attained the desired behavior. Teachers find objectives to be much more useful than goals in their daily work, as they know what specific behavior they are attempting to help their children perform and how proficient a child's performance needs to be to be judged adequate. Though goals give a curricular context for a teacher's work across a semester or a year, objectives that can be achieved in a day or two of instruction help teachers have a focal or reference point to know how well the pupils are doing in achieving the corresponding goal.

Because much of our conversation in this handbook is directed toward helping teacher education faculty learn how to instruct students about fairly short-term units of instruction, we stress learning how to teach prospective teachers about objectives in their TWSs.

Outcomes. On occasion, we wish to discuss educational aims or end products in their most generic sense–goals, benchmarks, and objectives. In that case, we use the word *outcome* to encompass all the educational aims appropriate to the conversation.

topic such as clothes dryer lint is an appropriate choice. Welander defines appropriateness in terms of meaningfulness for the child and significance in attaining a societal end. In large part, he also believes, "meaningfulness" is finally defined in terms of whether the child indicates the unit was found to be enjoyable and important.

Prospective teachers also need to have at least a rudimentary understanding of the concepts of *scope* and *sequence*. The breadth of a goal (what it encompasses conceptually) and its inherent structure (its organization) are useful concepts in constructing a TWS and generating the objectives that will serve as the foci for individual lessons. By understanding scope, the student will know the complexity and fullness of the ideas that make up a curricular theme. By understanding the sequence, the student will see the many ways a unit can be ordered for pupils to facilitate their attainment or comprehension of the goal(s). As the student selects a goal, he or she needs to understand that a goal can be attained instructionally in several ways. If, for example, the goal is to have children become participants in a democratic society, there are many possible ways to achieve that goal instructionally during the learning process.

Another concept students need to understand as they select an important TWS theme or focus is that of being *generative*. Welander, in summarizing Dewey's view (1938), refers to a unit as important when it includes experiences that will live on in future experiences (see box on pp. 136-137). If this situation occurs, then the experiences are generative. When a set of reading skills are taught, for example, the pupil's future learning about many other areas is facilitated. Units that focus on math and reading goals are often generative in that the ultimate test is whether the child can apply the new knowledge in classes other than math and reading. If the pupil can apply the knowledge, it is assumed he or she will be able to independently generate new learning. Generative goals become easily adapted to use in an interdisciplinary unit. If a unit on Canadian agriculture includes a goal on reading comprehension, children would find their increased reading skills useful, as they are also learning to prepare reports from documents supplied by the Canadian and provincial governments.

In Western's special education teacher preparation programs, students are taught that long-term goals are developed through preparing individualized education plans (IEPs). The goals are the standards the child will be expected to reach within 1 year for each of several curricular areas, such as communication skills, self-help skills, social skills, and academic skills and knowledge. For each goal, several short-term objectives are written with the expectation the accomplishment will occur in 3 to 4 months. Steps to help the child meet each objective (and, concomitantly, each goal) are specified. The IEP's goals serve, then, as the source of the objectives and activities, which the student quickly understands must be carefully aligned if the unit is to be most helpful to the child.

Finally, prospective teachers need to understand two related curriculum concepts regarding instructional time and goal complexity. First, students need to know that long-term and short-term goals differ. Some goals, particularly those directed toward core values, such as respect for others, cannot be achieved in the short time available in a typical work sample. But other goals for content and physical skills can often be reached in the few lessons provided in a unit. Prospective teachers must also accept the idea that most goals can be achieved only across a long period of time (sometimes more than one academic year). As a corollary, single daily lessons taught within a unit are purposeful only if they have a clear relationship (including in the eyes of the children) to a goal of the unit. A single 1-day lesson is seldom sufficient to attain a goal. And it is almost never sufficient to attain a goal the community would categorize as important. If a goal deals with an affective outcome such as "respecting the beliefs of others," it is unlikely that such a core value will be attained in even 2 to 3 years of a child's life, let alone 2 to 3 weeks of a TWS unit. Teacher education students need to be realistic in deciding what they can expect themselves to bring about in children's lives. They need to understand the relationship between goal complexity and the time required to attain such an outcome.

Instructing Students How to Select an Important Topic for a TWS

Instructors use several ways to help prospective teachers gain the prerequisite curriculum concepts necessary to select an important topic for a TWS. The following examples may be useful in sparking readers' creativity in selecting the best ways to instruct students.

1. *Reviewing goals.* Students need help in examining goal statements. Most goal documents are sterile reading that will seldom hold the attention of even veteran teachers who understand the importance of such papers. Students need to read about and discuss educational goals to understand the broad nature of their structure and to determine their sources. Such an activity seems to allow students to become comfortable with the breadth as well as the utility of curriculum goal statements. Gwenda Rice provides copies of her course goals for students early in their TWS instruction. Then she gives students the teacher preparation goals from the state's teacher licensing commission, and from Western's College of Education. If they are to complete Western's program and gain Oregon licensure efficiently, students become persuaded quickly that, for their benefit, Rice needs to draw her course goals from those two sources. Such a conversation establishes the need for classroom instruction to be clearly seen as part of a system and not geared toward just the interests and avocations of the teacher. For instruction to be meaningful, the lessons the students devise for their pupils need to be part of a whole to foster each child's future development as a citizen, consumer, worker, independent person, and, possibly, parent. With a concrete example such as Rice uses regarding their own professional careers, students are likely to find the conversation about goals more interesting and purposeful.

Selecting an Important Topic for a Teacher Work Sample

Gary Welander

> The central problem of an education based on experience is to select the kind of present experiences that live fruitfully and creatively in subsequent experiences. (Dewey, 1938, pp. 27-28)

Selecting a topic for a TWS is often the most distressing task confronting student teachers. Though they want to introduce and offer to their pupils an exciting, interesting curriculum, student teachers are often concerned about being expected to teach boring topics like those they recall from their own school experiences. Because this is their first real attempt to develop curriculum and teach self-designed lessons, student teachers are concerned about the quality and attractiveness of their topic.

John Dewey introduced the idea of "generative topics" of study (1938), pointing out that some topics are limited in their ability to generate ongoing learning and tend to culminate in dead ends. Other topics often lead learners to new opportunities and widened horizons and perspectives. Some topics even seem to be launching pads to further study, thus encouraging and extending learning. Therefore, I ask my student teachers to first consider the "generative" qualities of the topics under consideration. I also stress meaningful, stimulating, and personalized learning rather than "fun."

Teacher educators should discuss the following considerations before their students select an appropriate topic for a unit of study:

1. Is the topic or focus of study developmentally appropriate for age, maturation, life experiences, and the community setting?
2. Is the topic one that can easily encompass a variety of disciplines? Integrated content and a holistic approach are usually desirable.
3. Does the topic lend itself to active engagement and hands-on learning?
4. Does the topic encourage the use of higher level thinking strategies?
5. Does the topic focus on universal and timeless concepts that pupils can revisit in subsequent learning experiences?
6. Are there some essential understandings that pupils can transfer to other learning situations?
7. Does the topic suggest an initiating activity that will captivate and motivate children?
8. Is there a culminating activity in an "unforgettable" experience that will ensure closure and encourage children?
9. Does the topic and focus of study address mandated state and district curriculum guidelines?

An experience I had with a group of student teachers illustrates the dilemma often faced by prospective teachers as they attempt to create a unit of study that includes exciting activities based on meaningful outcomes. During a seminar involving 16 student teachers, we discussed various topics of study that had been suggested by their cooperating teachers or ones they recalled from their former school days. From their comments, it was obvious the

box continues next page

2. *Organizing goals.* A very definitive structure is provided by Amanda Woods McConney in clarifying how she wants her students to work with goal statements in structuring their TWSs. After she and her students reviewed a set of goals, McConney asked her students to distill two or more to a single goal that would be appropriate for the children they would teach. McConney stressed that their new statement was to be at the level of a conceptual goal but that it was not to be a task. McConney began her TWS planning instruction around analyzing goals to overcome a problem with which all teacher educators are

student teachers wanted to base their TWSs on topics that would captivate their pupils, not boring topics that would lead to off-task behaviors and daydreaming.

In a brainstorming session, topics were thrown out and quickly evaluated for their potential. It became apparent to me that many topics that I thought had great potential were too quickly dismissed. I changed course and asked the student teachers to identify the most boring activity and topic they could think of. "Folding clothes" was the winner for the most boring activity, while "laundry lint" was selected as the least exciting topic of study. Then the fun began. I suggested we spend the next 2 days exploring the topic of laundry lint to try to find something interesting about the fluffy stuff that gets picked off the lint screen and thrown away.

At our next seminar, we started creating our laundry lint unit of study. We focused our efforts on attempting to identify what laundry lint is and where it comes from. We began with the exploratory activity of investigating different kinds of fabric. With hand-held microscopes, we studied the weave pattern in our clothing–an activity that captivated students' attention and led to frequent sharing. Under the microscope, denim, corduroy, and argyle socks all proved to be fascinating. The students noted that some cloth was fuzzier than others. This discovery led to an investigation of the thread that had been used to make clothing. We learned, from books we investigated, that thread is made primarily from twisted fibers and that different threads have different lengths of twisted fibers. Some threads under the microscope look much like braided rope. The students also noticed that some threads were not twisted as tightly as others and thus fell apart more easily.

These activities proved irresistible to children as well as the student teachers and fared well when evaluated using the nine criteria listed above. Laundry lint itself was not enthralling, but the investigation into how all that soft fuzzy stuff ends up in the lint trap of the clothes dryer was both involving and interesting. At least the 3rd-grade pupils, for whom this unit was designed, reported they found these activities fascinating. They also reportedly had a clearer understanding of the birth of laundry lint.

For those pupils, two valuable conceptual understandings also resulted. First, the children better understood the "magical appearance" of laundry lint. One of the goals of science is to replace the "mystical" with "understanding." Second, the children's knowledge of the scientific process was solidified by creating a unit of study that implemented discovery learning through a problem-solving format. These processes should, through continued use, promote confidence in the pupils by helping them to understand that anything unknown can be investigated and, with persistence, understood.

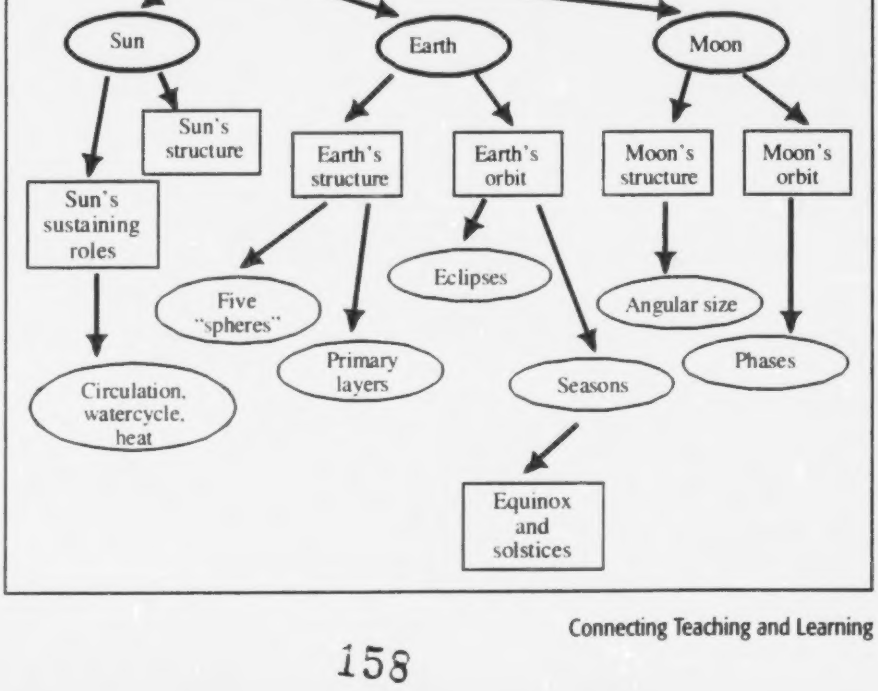
The student teachers also discovered a powerful truth: There is no such thing as an uninteresting topic, just disinterested people.

Our task, then, is to help prospective teachers select rich, stimulating topics that lend themselves to the creative exploration of our world–topics that provide vast opportunities for divergent investigation, lateral and reflective thinking, the application of problem-solving processes, and intellectual debate. Exciting topics that children view as relevant and meaningful should be the focus for TWSs.

familiar. In their desire to begin constructing the teaching component of a unit, students regularly replaced their goal and objective selection activities with a discussion of instructional tasks. Then the students began a frustrating search for a goal or set of goals to serve as the curricular parent to their instructional activity. There is likely no one in education who has not tried, at least once, that backward approach to try to justify including a "cute" or "intriguing" activity. McConney is careful to stress to her students that goals are states to be attained but that they are not similar to tasks for pupils to undertake. After stating their distilled goal(s), McConney asked the prospective teachers to begin generating steps they and their pupils would need to undertake in attaining the goal(s). Once they designed a list of instructional tasks, McConney asked students to sequence the tasks and to decide approximately how long each task would take. What McConney did in this developmental activity was teach her students about TWS planning by clarifying with them the concepts of scope and sequence. And she had done so by using her students' classrooms and the children they were teaching as the context for their instruction on selecting important goals. Teacher preparation students are likely to view such an activity as an important and concrete portrayal of the scope and sequence concepts—done in a way they will likely remember.[1]

3. *Concept maps*. An instructional technique to help students analyze the concepts inherent in a goal statement is the use of concept maps (see Figure 6.1). Several Western faculty teach their students to develop concept maps to help generate the underlying concepts intrinsic to a goal. The concept map shown in Figure 6.1 was developed by a Western student and used to develop several unit objectives. Jim Long, who helps Western students develop concept maps as part of his instructional strategy, believes they help focus the prospective teacher's attention on developing the interrelationship of concepts underlying a goal (see see box on opposite page). Long views concept maps as most useful in analyzing thematic or holistic concepts, such as one in a foreign language class where teachers attempt to teach to the goal "comprehend and use common social conventions, social courtesies, and nonverbal cues" (Oregon Department of

Figure 6.1. Concept Mapping in Organizing TWS Concepts


Astronomy
Sun
Earth
Moon
Sun's structure
Sun's sustaining roles
Earth's structure
Earth's orbit
Moon's structure
Moon's orbit
Eclipses
Five "spheres"
Angular size
Primary layers
Phases
Seasons
Circulation, watercycle, heat
Equinox and solstices

The Design and Use of Topic or Concept Maps in Teacher Work Sample Methodology

James W. Long

The process of designing a work sample involves a complex set of tasks for preservice teachers. A student is assigned to work with a cooperating classroom teacher who has an existing curriculum, which usually is in an ongoing process of implementation and adaptation. In states such as Oregon, state-mandated performance benchmarks for pupils' learning must also be addressed. Preservice teachers are expected to create TWSs that conform to these curricular restrictions and, at the same time, take into consideration the appropriate use of adopted texts and other available materials, the time frame in the school calendar, the degree of autonomy their cooperating teacher has allotted to them, individual pupils' needs, and skills of an often diverse classroom population. The unit for some preservice teachers will follow closely existing content, materials, and methods, while other preservice teachers will have the opportunity to select specific content and unit outcomes and to construct the necessary learning activities.

Regardless of the classroom setting in which they might find themselves, preservice teachers can benefit from the creation of a diagrammatic representation of their instructional unit that illustrates the various curricular components of a topic and the interrelationships among those components. These diagrams might be called *topic maps*, *concept maps*, or *cognitive maps*, depending on their intent and the nature of the material being represented. The intended outcome for this form of organization is that the preservice teacher will lay out the main components or themes of the instructional unit as well as any subcomponents (e.g., prerequisite knowledge or skills or an elaboration of knowledge), the relationships among these components (e.g., a learning sequence or possible alternative outcomes or even a hierarchical structure of some information), and a representation of the measurable outcomes that will be assessed.

Whether drawn by hand or through the use of a computer graphics program, these diagrams should include certain key features. A diagram should clearly portray the central concept or theme for the unit, identify the knowledge and skills that are the desired outcomes including any prerequisite knowledge or skills, establish the relationships among these items, and provide an overall visual organization that reflects the conceptual organization of the unit. If the unit is organized with concepts in a linear sequence, the visual map should illustrate that sequence as a step-by-step diagram. However, if the main theme is to be broken into a series of subthemes, which are then to be dealt with more or less simultaneously or with an equal emphasis or with no particular order, a diagram with the subthemes radiating out from the central theme might be the more appropriate method of representing this relatively nonhierarchical approach.

Computer software used to build concept maps includes commercial products such as Inspiration Software's Inspiration® (with information available at http://www.inspiration.com) and noncommercial products such as PIViT© (University of Michigan, Project-Based Science Group). Each one allows the user to create topic maps with text containers of various geometric shapes and dynamic links (such as arrows) that denote relationships. Any older object-based graphics program, however, would allow the user to enter text within the frame of a specific shape and then draw a connecting line between various frames. Frames and lines can then be arranged as groups and repositioned as needed.

While teaching several instructional technology courses, I have used the PIViT© program to provide both preservice and inservice teachers with a very usable graphics tool that is available on both the Macintosh and Windows platforms. The program is described and easily downloaded, along with example files, from the Project Based Science (PBS) Web site (http://www.umich.edu/~pbsgroup/), which requires registration but no fee and, most important, has been designed by teachers for teachers and students to use. Various object shapes are related to instructional processes (e.g., activities or assessments). Moreover, the shapes can be expanded into elaboration windows, the interconnecting arrows are dynamically linked between shapes and labeled, and the components can be inserted into a weekly calendar to set up a schedule for instruction. The downloaded version of this software comes with an objective library of the Michigan educational standards, with the potential for adapting other state standards to the necessary text format.

In TWSM, the unit topic or concept map is typically shown to follow the statement of the instructional setting and provides a framework for the listing of the instructional objectives. During field supervision of preservice teachers, my practice has been to have my students provide me an instructional setting statement, topic map, and instructional objectives at least 2 or 3 weeks before actually beginning the unit of instruction. This schedule provides an opportunity to review the organization and intended outcomes of the units so that any necessary modifications can be made. Usually, the modifications required relate to prerequisite skills and knowledge or to the logical progression of the unit.

Topic maps are useful in evaluating the preservice teacher's conceptualization of the content, the sequence of instruction, and the amount of elaboration relative to the amount of time (usually around 3 weeks) allotted to these units. In addition, these maps provide a graphical reference for preservice teachers to gauge their progress through the unit.

Education, 1997, p. 157). Such a goal would involve behaviors that would need to be considered in deciding which to include. Concept mapping would help students to identify the breadth and sequence of what they might wish to include in their TWS.

4. *Scope.* An activity designed by a former Western faculty member, Paula Bradfield-Kreider, was used when she believed her students were having trouble discerning the important components inherent in curriculum goals. Her instructional step involved asking them, in small groups, to design an owner's manual for an aquifer. The task was to develop a thorough owner's manual so the aquifer would not be destroyed as a consequence of ignorance. It did not take the prospective teachers long to determine they needed to do a task analysis to determine the components the owner would need to know. The purpose of this activity was to clarify for the students that the scope of a goal must be analyzed to ensure that everything that is important (or necessary) is not overlooked. Once that concept was affirmed for her students, Bradfield-Kreider returned to her discussion of analyzing the conceptual components of a goal.

5. *Criteria for selecting important topics.* Faculty who have helped prepare those interested in early childhood education are, it seems, particularly sensitive to raising the expectations of their students as they develop instruction. David Wright, one of the kindest faculty members students are likely to meet, has often questioned his students' choices of topics as being nearly anti-intellectual. Too often, in his view, units for kindergartners and primary-age pupils focus on fluff. To help his students select more vigorous yet appropriate academic topics, Wright discusses with his students the five criteria proposed by Katz and Chard (1989), who state that whatever is selected to be taught should

- Be of immediate use to children
- Incorporate life-long skills
- Be connected to the real world
- Be interesting to children
- Challenge and encourage children to move to the next content or skill level

Resources in Selecting Important TWS Goals

It is likely students are stunned and confused by the magnitude of goal statements available to them as they begin developing their TWS units. Learned societies, federal agencies, state departments of education, textbook publishers, school districts, schools, and in some cases groups of teachers, such as in a high school department, have prepared lists of goals. Students learning about goals and goal sources can be overwhelmed trying to decide which set or sets of goals should be their focal point. Western faculty have used the following instructional activities successfully to help students find useful goal sources.

1. *Resource documents.* To ensure that his students know about the availability of goal resources, David Wright has developed an introductory activity in which he sends his students to the university curriculum laboratory to review a list of

documents before they begin planning the goals for their TWSs. Wright asks students to find goal statements associated with assigned cross-disciplinary topics (also related to their intended teaching grade levels) that come from state and district curriculum guides and from textbooks. They are to find at least two goals, each drawn from three different curricular areas (math, music, and social science, for example), that came from the source documents. What Wright wants students to know is how to find the expectations for the curriculum areas they will teach, the types of information provided by each document type, how they might use those materials as they begin to develop the initial ideas for their TWS, and how they might use these same sources in the future as they move to a different grade level as a teacher. When the class session is over, Wright requires students to turn in their responses to their assignments so he can be assured each person has gained at least a beginning understanding of the purposes for and utility of curriculum guides. Wright reports that students found the activity helpful and useful in clarifying the curricular expectations held for them as they worked in their practice classrooms.

2. *State goal documents.* Western's College of Education requires all prospective teachers in the general education program to purchase a copy of Oregon's content standards. As instructors discuss goals for education, they know their students have available the specific goal statements expected of the state's public school pupils.

3. *World Wide Web.* Rather than just relying on the traditional sources of information regarding goals, Paula Bradfield-Kreider encourages her students to review the World Wide Web seeking nontraditional sources for goals (as well as other instructional resources) for their TWSs. Many of her students have become enthusiastic about the currency of the knowledge base they can embed in their units using the Web as a resource.

4. *Sharing goal statements.* Susan Wood, in an attempt to help students who are having trouble clarifying and stating their TWS goals, asks them to work in like-grade groups and brainstorm planning activities. Students gain help in refining their goals and then in thinking about potential objectives, instruction, materials, and assessments. Wood reports her students find these brainstorming groups helpful because group members are working with similarly aged children.

Selecting important themes or foci for TWS units is very difficult for beginning teachers. They often lack insight into the needs and skills their pupils hold, and they often have limited knowledge of the curriculum. Veteran teachers may find the prospective teachers' units not as relevant to the children's lives or to the aims of society as they would like. Given the two limits common to prospective teachers (limited experience with children and limited knowledge of the curriculum), teacher education faculty need to take an instructional hand in helping them find a purposeful unit focus.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF ALIGNMENT DECISIONS

Once teacher education students have selected the theme or focus for a unit and have stated the scope of the goals that make up their unit *and* they are confident that their work describes a unit important to their pupils and to society, it is time to state instructional objectives that will serve as specific guideposts for instruction and assessment. A set of skills is needed to write well-stated, measurable objectives, but we cover them only lightly in this handbook.[2] We do discuss, however, the very difficult task of aligning objectives with stated goals. Other readily available texts do a thorough job in helping prospective teachers write clear objectives, but most do not provide sufficient help in teaching the alignment of goals and objectives.

Alignment is too often dealt with superficially. Because alignment is such a central component of a TWS, we present here some ideas that may better help to inform students how to accomplish this very difficult planning skill.

Two useful metaphors for thinking about the general concept of alignment, a hamburger and a wagon wheel, come from Paula Bradfield-Kreider. The ingredients for a successful curricular hamburger include the goals on top, the assessment on the bottom, and the instruction in the middle. But if you want a hamburger that is easy to eat, all the parts must fit (align) together. They shouldn't slip around. The way to tell whether the parts align is by analyzing the objectives: The alignment is the relationship between the goals, instruction, and assessment, much like a toothpick in a sandwich. Until the bottom bun (assessment) is in place, the hamburger is incomplete. Another metaphor Bradfield-Kreider uses for alignment between goals and objectives is a wagon wheel. One cannot just claim that the wheel is perfect; one must demonstrate the wheel (alignment) works perfectly by testing it.

Teacher education instructors, however, need to be realistic when discussing the relationship between goals and objectives. The match between a specific goal and its attendant objective(s) is not always readily apparent. For example, are the goals and objectives in Figure 6.2 aligned? Aligning goals to one another

Figure 6.2. Sample Alignment of Goals and Objectives

State standards

Students use physical and mental models to demonstrate ideas, make connections, and explain or create theories.

District and state curriculum and assessment

Children will be able to demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between Earth's natural cycles and pollutants.

Objective

The model [the child develops] accurately demonstrates the interactions among the water, nitrogen, and oxygen-carbon dioxide cycles.

Source: Adapted from Harris & Carr, 1996, p. 11.

or to objectives is not an exact science. It is a process where each set of authors constructs somewhat different objectives. Teacher educators would do well to apprise their students of that fact and recommend that a rationale for the TWS alignment decisions be provided.

One of the troubling concepts in planning a TWS for both faculty and prospective teachers is that of *standards*. Specified standards identify the criterion (in some cases, criteria) pupils are to attain to meet an outcome. An example of a criterion within an objective is in italics in the following two statements:

- The student will be able to write a knowledge-level objective. The objective will include *each of the four components* required in a well-stated objective.
- Given a list of gene and/or chromosome mutations and a list of common genetic disorders, the student will be able to match the mutation type to the disorder *at least 6 of 8 times*.

The selection of a realistic criterion to ensure that children have obtained an objective requires insight on the part of the teacher that can nevertheless be problematic. In the first objective, shown above, students will meet the criterion only if they can produce every one of the four components. In the second objective, students have a less rigorous standard to attain. It is hard to know which criterion statement is more realistic for a specific group of learners. For the first objective, it may be that unless you know all the components of an objective, you know nothing worthwhile, while in the second you "understand" mutations and disorders if you can correctly match three fourths of them to one another. Selecting the appropriate criterion level can be difficult for prospective teachers and, eventually, for their pupils as well. The standard selected is typically judged against the teacher's judgment as to what is both "good enough" to demonstrate proficiency and appropriate to pupils' developmental and experiential status. With regard to problems for pupils emanating from a carelessly chosen criterion level, one wag noted that knowing only 99% of the safety tips about skydiving may be limiting to one's future.

Many prospective teachers lack a thorough understanding of the content and of the children to enable them to state a perceptive criterion. At Western, it is recommended that prospective teachers review each selected standard with their classroom supervisors. We also recommend that both college and school supervisors understand students' limits as they evaluate the choices of criteria for a TWS and that both supervisors explain their judgments regarding the appropriateness of the criteria thoroughly so prospective teachers begin to acquire the necessary insight.

Students need to master several other concepts as they develop aligned goals and objectives. We turn now to those concepts and their corresponding instructional activities.

Outcomes That Vary by Kind and Complexity

At Western, prospective teachers are expected to develop TWSs that, among other elements, must include objectives that "vary by kind and complexity" (Ayres, Girod, Ling, et al., 1996, p. 13). Two concepts are embedded in that criterion. First, to understand the concept of *objective complexity*, students need to be familiar with at least one type of taxonomy.[3] Second, students need to be capable of using taxonomies to describe the complexity corresponding to their goals and objectives. A taxonomy provides a standard against which one can compare the variety of outcomes sought in an instructional unit and it enables teachers to evaluate the complexity of the outcomes inherent in their units.

The expectation that a TWS will include "outcomes of differing kinds" at Western means outcomes for a unit should run across at least two of the three domains—cognitive, affective, and psychomotor. In most Western teacher preparation programs, the expectation means evidence will be provided about students' abilities to facilitate learning across a broad spectrum of teaching skills. Often, in elementary classrooms, students work toward a physical skill drawn from art, music, or physical education to go along with the traditional cognitive outcomes. On the other hand, high school language arts and social studies teachers often write outcomes related to the affective domains where they attempt to influence children's attitudes about literature.

The intent in asking students to seek evidence that they can bring about learning across two or more domains is to demonstrate their ability to deal with the breadth of the curriculum. They are showcasing the range of their professional skills. By requiring that they work in at least two domains, the licensure decision is based on a greater knowledge base. Generally, students who are wise meet the requirement without developing a set of facetious goals in the secondary domain. But the task can be difficult for beginners. As David Wright said, "The students do want to vary the outcomes, but it is hard for them to do it well. I am not sure I know how to do it." Faculty need to be reasonable in reviewing the appropriateness of a student's work because this criterion for a TWS requires quite sophisticated skills.

The second Western expectation for TWSs requires "outcomes of varying complexity." That expectation is to ensure that candidates for a teaching license demonstrate they can bring about learning across the spectrum of human academic accomplishments.[4] This criterion was developed because the faculty at Western thought their teacher education students too often selected outcomes focused on lower level behaviors. By stating the necessity for "complexity," it was hoped that prospective teachers would select more demanding TWS outcomes. "The requirement that complexity be included in each work sample is, then, a standard for allowing a more valid prediction of the candidate's future performance as a classroom teacher" (Ayres, Girod, Ling, et al., 1996, p. 14).

Some Western faculty rely on the cognitive domain taxonomy (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill & Kratherwohl, 1956) to describe outcomes of varying levels of complexity, while others use formats proposed by other authors. One such format proposes four types of general outcomes (Stiggins, 1995, pp. 240-241):

- Master substantive subject-matter knowledge.
- Use knowledge to reason and solve problems.
- Develop and demonstrate important skills (such as the ability to read or communicate in a second language).
- Create high-quality products (such as term papers, research reports, and artistic creations).

Students also need to understand that some goals are long term. For example, ***understand and interpret the history of the state of Oregon*** is clearly a long-term goal, while ***understand that resources are limited, e.g., scarcity, opportunity, cost,*** although still quite complex, is likely to be a goal one might expect to attain in a shorter period of time. Students need to learn that long-term objectives may not be met unless several weeks, months, or possibly even years are available; that such large goals really are quite significant; and that the concepts of scope and sequence are important in allowing one to manage such involved goals. Gary Welander uses the following set of principles in teaching his students about employing long-term goals in their TWSs:

- Understand that long-term goals take several days (or much longer) to accomplish.
- Lay out your long-term goals by stating their corresponding objectives.
- State how and in what order you will accomplish your objectives.
- Check your progress daily toward the objectives and, correspondingly, toward your goals.

In summary, Western requires that students develop TWSs whose curricula focus on outcomes from two or more domains, represent nearly the full range of taxonomic outcomes, and encompass long-term, socially significant goals.

Clearly Stated Objectives

> The desire for higher achievement for ever more students has forced us to define the meaning of academic success in ever clearer terms. (Stiggins, 1995, p. 239)

This section provides examples of strategies developed by Western faculty to instruct their students in writing objectives. The following examples can be used to supplement the readings and activities found in texts referenced earlier.

Faculty at Western differ in the names of the components they expect to see in a clearly written objective. In general, though, it is expected that an objective will contain at least three parts: a measurable verb, a criterion, and a description of the condition under which assessment will occur. In the 1970s, curriculum developers called for four parts, referred to as "ABCD," to be included in an objective: audience, behavior, condition, and degree. In many ways, those four components still exist. For example, today's objectives are often written in the following form: *After the lesson on the planet Earth, the student will be able to list, in a paragraph with complete sentences, the five primary "spheres" of the planet.* The ABCD components are still found in clear statements of objectives:

Audience:	*the student*
Behavior:	*will be able to list*
Condition:	*after the lesson on the planet Earth*
Degree:	*in a paragraph with complete sentences, the five primary "spheres" of the planet*

Although curriculum writers today seldom mention the ABCD pattern, they do expect objectives to include at least the three criteria identified at the beginning of this section. Faculty at Western have developed instructional and practice materials the reader may find useful in teaching students how to write objectives containing a measurable verb, a criterion, and the setting or condition of measurement. The following examples of instructional activities are used to help students learn the components of objectives. The examples shown come principally from the work of Jacqueline Kyle.

Figure 6.3. Goals and Objectives

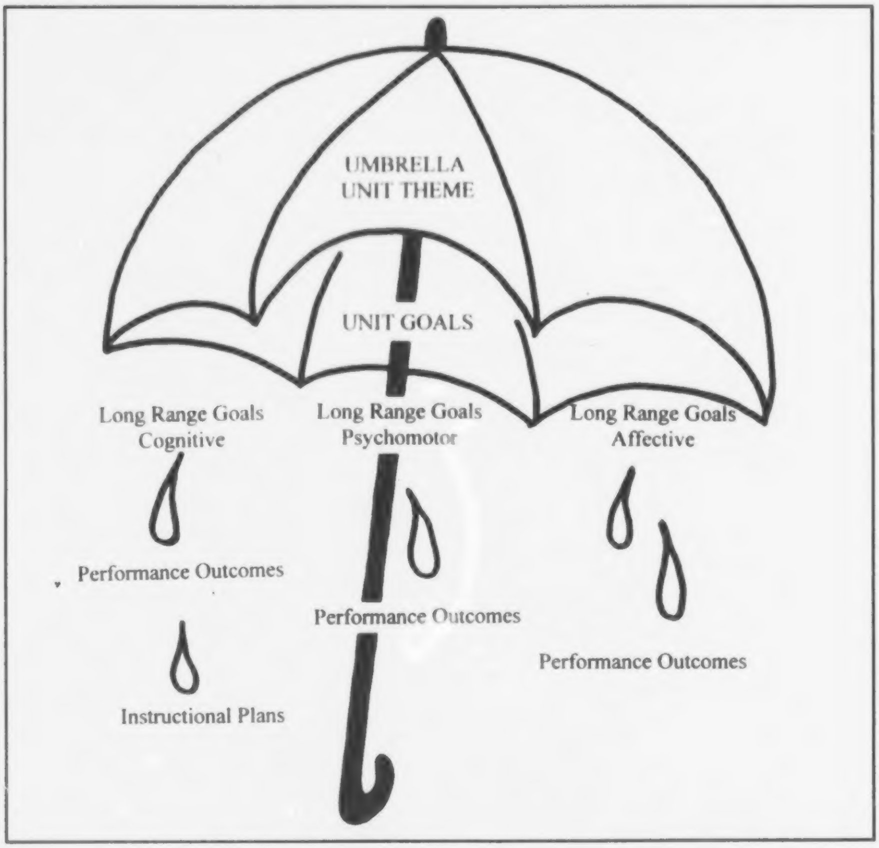

UMBRELLA
UNIT THEME
UNIT GOALS
Long Range Goals
Cognitive
Long Range Goals
Psychomotor
Long Range Goals
Affective
Performance Outcomes
Performance Outcomes
Performance Outcomes
Instructional Plans

Table 6.1. An Example of the Relationship Between Goals and Objectives

Long-range goal	Objectives emanating from the goal
The pupils will demonstrate an understanding of the three different ways rocks are formed.	1. Following an activity in which they role-play the formation of sedimentary rocks, each pupil will be able to describe the process in writing using the words *pressure, heat,* and *water.*
	2. The pupil, after seeing a movie on the formation of igneous rocks, will create a clay volcano, labeled correctly, showing the magma pool, vent, crater, and lava flow.
	3. Following a lecture on the formation of metamorphic rock, the pupil will be able to build a "metamorphic cookie" and describe in writing that the bottom layer underwent change as a result of heat and that the pressure on the top layer was caused by gravity.

1. *Objectives come from goals.* A first step for many faculty in teaching students how to write clear objectives is to show the relationship between goals and objectives—to try to make clear the logical association between the source (goals) and the objectives. Kyle uses two activities to make this connection. The first is an overhead transparency (Figure 6.3) that portrays a goal as a spoke in a TWS umbrella or unit topic. Immediately under the goals are specific objectives that are outgrowths of the spokes or goals. In a related metaphor, Kyle describes goals as "giving birth" to objectives. The progeny (objectives) are clearly related but smaller versions when compared with their ancestors (goals). Table 6.1 provides a concrete example of the connection between goals and objectives. Each objective is a clearly measurable outgrowth of the goal.

2. *Components of an objective.* Once teacher education students understand the relationship between goals and objectives, the next step is for faculty to teach them how to write their own objectives. A characteristic activity undertaken by Kyle is to discuss with students the components of an objective, using two handouts showing each component. The first handout, shown in an abbreviated form as Figure 6.4, provides students with an opportunity to practice finding each component. In a related example, students are given another handout

Figure 6.4. Components of an Objective–Handout

Objectives should contain references to four elements:

1. The *pupil*
2. The *instructional activity* in which the pupil will participate
3. What the *pupil will be able to do*
4. The *criterion* by which you will measure whether the pupil can perform the task

Find each of these elements in the following objectives:

1. The pupil will, after receiving a lesson on the meaning of 10 vocabulary words, be able to orally read each word and select from a list a synonym that correctly describes the word.
2. When given a list of individual cell parts following the lessons on cellular structure, the student will be able to circle the resulting number of chromosomes in each cell involved.

and asked to identify which of the four components are missing from the first objective (see Figure 6.5). After the students have responded, they are shown the second, complete objective.

Figure 6.5. Missing Components of an Objective–Handout

Performance outcomes should contain four basic elements:

1. Reference to *the pupil*
2. Reference to *the activity in which the pupil will participate*
3. Reference to *what the pupil will be able to do*
4. The criterion by which you will *measure* whether the pupil can perform the task

Example

The pupil (1) after receiving a lesson on the meaning of 10 vocabulary words (2) will be able to read each word and provide an appropriate meaning (3) to 8 of 10 words (4).

Your Turn

The pupil, after walking around the playground, will be able to write a descriptive paragraph that stresses setting.

All performance outcomes are measurable; therefore, you must include element no. 4 above. If you cannot measure growth or achievement, you need to reconsider your performance outcome.

Rewrite the second objective so it contains all of the four elements.

____

____

____

The two activities, finding the components and ascertaining the missing components, seem so similar that the point of including both may not be obvious. As someone who taught students how to write objectives for many years, however, it became apparent to me that the two activities tap into different intellectual skills. Students who find all the components within a complete objective cannot necessarily discern which component is missing in an incomplete one. They know something is wrong with the incomplete objective but not what the problem is. For those students, take-home practice activities like those in Figures 6.4 and 6.5 would likely be helpful in sharpening their skills.

3. *Verbs in objectives.* A final activity devised by Kyle is one that focuses on the verbs in objectives. There are many activities where one can provide students with lists of verbs to help them see the variety of behaviors one can expect from children. A common list teacher educators use with their students is one that provides verbs associated with the various levels of a taxonomy. Kyle, however, uses a strategy that I am certain captures her students' attention regarding the importance of the verbs in an objective (see Figure 6.6). She provides her students with her course objectives and asks them to predict how their knowledge will be assessed given the verb in each objective. The students undoubtedly see their course objectives in a whole new light as they become better readers of

Figure 6.6. Course Objectives–Verbs

Course objectives:

Upon completion of the course, the student will be able to

1. Develop and interpret objectives, curriculum-aligned tests, and test items.
2. Develop, interpret, and report quartile data and item analyses.*
3. Select an appropriate definition or explanation for concepts and terminology used in assessment.
4. Explain why particular myths about assessment are not true.
5. Distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate testing practices.
6. Suggest alternative methods for assessing students' performance.
7. Discuss basic principles and practices employed in standardizing tests.
8. Define terminology commonly associated with descriptive statistical data and test scores.

* See chapter 9 for a discussion of the concept of quartile.

objectives as well as more enlightened regarding the power of the verb in an objective. Clearly, Kyle's students are more attuned to her expectations than are other students who are just handed a copy of their instructor's syllabus.

As students finish selecting their goals and objectives, they should be well prepared to begin answering two very important questions about their chosen outcomes:

- Why was the criterion level set as it was?
- What student work will be reviewed to help decide on the success of the lesson?

As students progress through their TWS planning, they will likely find it necessary to revise their goals and objectives and, concomitantly, their answers to the preceding two questions.

This section was not designed to serve as the sole resource for teaching students about the skills needed to write instructional objectives. Nor was it developed to respond to the concerns about standards-based schools stated by authors such as Sizer (1995) or Eisner (1995). Rather, the section was intended to expand readers' instructional strategies in preparing students to write TWS objectives. We recommend consulting several of the texts on the market to select the basic strategies for teaching skills in writing objectives.

Outside Sources and Considerations

Many times educators speak about the concept of alignment as if it involves only three variables—*goals, objectives,* and *assessment.* At Western, we use the concept of alignment in a much broader context. Alignment entails linking outcomes (goals and objectives) not only with one another and with assessment but also each of them with instructional strategies and materials, the classroom context, and pupils' needs. Alignment also includes correlating unit goals with goal statements from national, state, district, and, possibly, school documents.

This section presents some ideas about alignment considerations and instructional activities to help students better understand not only what alignment is but also the processes required to develop aligned curricula.

The following sections present a few successful strategies for teaching students how to align the components of their TWSs with one another. Developing such internal consistency in students' work is difficult but can be accomplished if one selects the necessary teaching strategies with care.

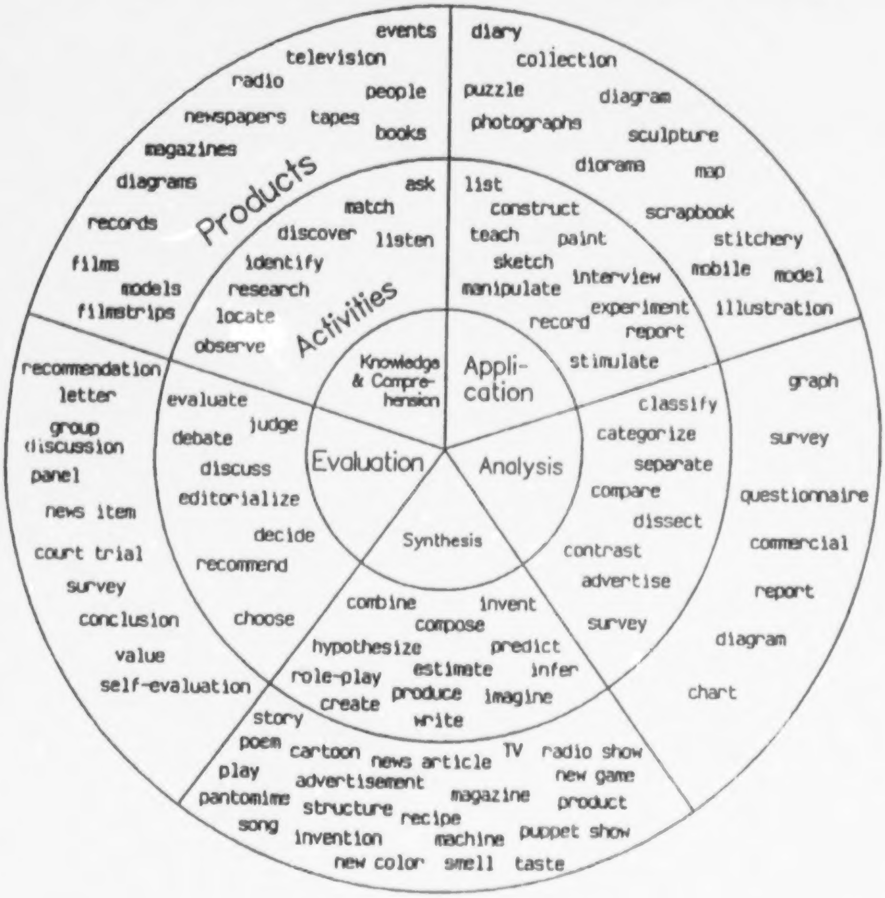
Aligning Objectives With Goals

David Wright, with a bit of a chuckle, talked about students' reticence to expend effort trying to ensure that goals and objectives are aligned, noting that "[students] find aligning goals and objectives difficult because they want to go right to planning the teaching activities." For beginners, spending time trying to ensure that their objectives provide thorough coverage of a goal is not what they envisioned their life would entail when they chose teaching as a profession. Rather, they more likely foresaw being the center of attention as they brought knowledge to their charges. Asking students to worry about the alignment of goals and objectives needs to be done with some instructional grace, because it is not a universally attractive activity.

1. *Mental modeling.* To provide a model for students learning to align goals and objectives, Paula Bradfield-Kreider asks them to help her judge whether her course goals and objectives seem logically linked. Bradfield-Kreider does so with a process she calls *mental modeling*,[5] in which she and her students discuss the source of her stated outcomes. Bradfield-Kreider explains that many of her goals emanate from Oregon's licensing requirements for teachers as well as from expectations for her course as stated in the university catalog. But her interpretation of the goals is also sifted through her knowledge of what she thinks a teacher education program ought to include and what she thinks teachers need to have acquired professionally. As she explains her selection of the course goals, the students begin to understand what a complex set of decisions educators make when they state their chosen goals. After explaining several of her course goals, Bradfield-Kreider assigns students, working in pairs, a math or reading goal with the direction to explain how they will choose to modify the goal, pare it down to a manageable unit size, and develop objectives. She provides the students with curriculum guides so they have reference materials to use, but they must still explain their selection decisions. Bradfield-Kreider says she is trying to "demystify the cognitive processes" involved in planning.

In a later activity, students hand in an assignment in which they array a set of objectives against goals they selected for their TWS. They then sit with Bradfield-Kreider and replicate her mental modeling activity by explaining how they believe their goals and objectives for a TWS are aligned. Though it is clearly a time-consuming process for Bradfield-Kreider, its instructional effectiveness is

Figure 6.7. Verbs and Nouns Aligned With Levels of the Cognitive Taxonomy


events
television
radio
people
newspapers
tapes
books
magazines
diagrams
Products
records
films
models
filmstrips
ask
match
discover
listen
identify
research
locate
observe
Activities
diary
collection
puzzle
diagram
photographs
sculpture
diorama
map
list
construct
scrapbook
teach
paint
stitchery
sketch
interview
mobile
model
manipulate
experiment
illustration
record
report
stimulate
Knowledge & Comprehension
Application
Evaluation
Analysis
Synthesis
recommendation
letter
group discussion
panel
news item
court trial
survey
conclusion
value
self-evaluation
evaluate
judge
debate
discuss
editorialize
decide
recommend
choose
classify
categorize
separate
compare
dissect
contrast
advertise
survey
graph
survey
questionnaire
commercial
report
diagram
chart
combine
invent
compose
hypothesize
predict
estimate
infer
role-play
create
produce
imagine
write
story
poem
cartoon
news article
TV
radio show
play
advertisement
new game
magazine
pantomime
structure
product
recipe
song
invention
machine
puppet show
new color
smell
taste

obvious. And it does ensure that students, at least once, had logically and persuasively aligned their own goals and objectives before they began teaching.

2. *Objectives aligned with taxonomic levels.* One of Western's expectations for TWSs is that students design their units so a range of cognitive taxonomic levels in particular is included. Figure 6.7 shows a structure Sue Dauer has incorporated into her instruction to help her students achieve that standard. The framework provides students with a set of verbs for objectives that are associated with five of the levels from Bloom's cognitive domain taxonomy. One of the interesting elements of the design is that the interior ring contains nouns associated with processes or cognitive activities, while the middle ring has verbs associated with the development of the outer ring's products. Dauer reports the design has been useful to students seeking a wider array of ways to assess their pupils.

3. *Alignment with an IEP.* For students preparing to become special education teachers, Elizabeth Dohrn has designed a set of materials to help them learn how to adapt individualized education plans so there are very specific objectives

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for a TWS (see Figure 6.8, sections A and B, and Appendix I). Students in Dohrn's class are introduced to these instructional materials in small groups, then told to be prepared to replicate the steps when they develop their TWSs. TWS objectives, using Dohrn's materials, are integrally related to the pupils' IEPs. The student then knows the unit will serve not only as a device to allow for a performance assessment but also, more important, to facilitate ongoing classroom instruction. An added advantage of Dohrn's materials is that they clarify the relationship between annual goals and short-term instructional objectives. Dohrn's students are encouraged to continue the demonstrated process as they develop their TWSs.

4. *Special child's program aligned with classroom structure.* Another activity taught to students preparing to become special education teachers is one devised by Western professor Beverly Herzog. Teachers of severely disabled children often attempt to determine whether a child can be returned to the regular classroom for even part of the day and, if the child can be returned, what that pupil will need to learn to be able to function comfortably in the more demanding setting. Herzog directs her prospective teachers to visit the pupil's regular or mainstream classroom to observe the procedures the teacher uses with the other children. Some suggested observation foci include these questions:

- Are lesson directions put on the board?
- Are the children responsible for reading and employing those directions independently?
- Do they hang up their coats and backpacks in a designated place?
- Must they perform certain activities when they are done working?
- When children need the teacher's attention, how are they expected to gain help?

Once the prospective special education teacher has determined what the child needs to learn to participate in that classroom, a task analysis is developed to construct a curriculum to teach the child how to function within the expectations of the regular classroom teacher. Certainly, Herzog's format is a type of curricular alignment different from what general education teachers anticipate. This form of assessment done by a special education teacher establishes a behavioral baseline. Then a curriculum is constructed that, for the child's sake, must align as closely as possible with the mainstream classroom.

Alignment Decisions—Rating Unit Outcomes

This section briefly describes the field performance measures used to assess the quality of goals and objectives developed by Western's prospective teachers. Two assessment devices have been devised for use when teaching and assessing TWSs. First is a thorough system that has been most commonly used by Western faculty to supplement their instructional efforts (see Tables 3.4 and 6.2-6.9 for examples of that system). We refer to it as an *analytical* or *formative* assessment system. It provides thorough feedback to students as they learn about each component of TWSs. That system, though, is too lengthy and time-consuming for

Figure 6.8. Lesson Plan Format–Supporting a Set of IEPs

Your Name ______________________________

A. Short-Term Objective

____

____

B. Rationale for Objective: This instructional plan relates to these pupils' IEP goals and objectives.

Student 1
Related Annual Goal:

____

____

Related Short-Term Objectives:

____

____

Student 2
Related Annual Goal:

____

____

Related Short-Term Objectives:

____

____

Student 3
Related Annual Goal:

____

____

Related Short-Term Objectives:

____

____

Student 4
Related Annual Goal:

____

____

Related Short-Term Objectives:

____

____

The above objective is an example of (check one):
__ Essential Skill __ Common Curriculum Goal __ District Goal

C. Rationale for Instructional Approach

1. In what way does the diagnostic/eligibility information (taken from the formal and informal data describing current levels of functioning) impact the instructional plan?
   Address all that apply:
   (a) Skill level
   (b) Level of learning
   (c) Processing problems
   (d) Learning style
   (e) Interest/motivation factors
   (f) Management considerations
2. How will I provide a review of items previously mastered so pupils will retain them?
3. How will I promote future generalization (to regular class, to home and community, to new applications) when simple acquisition has been attained?

faculty to use in rating TWSs. A second assessment measure that is much more efficient is used to rate TWSs developed during student teaching (see Table 3.5). That measure is referred to as a *summative* system. In the remainder of this and following chapters, we suggest to readers how we use both systems in teaching and evaluating planning skills.

Two sets of assessment tasks that relate to planning are discussed in the formative measure. The first task asks the prospective teacher to portray three characteristics of TWS unit outcomes. The second task asks the college supervisor to rate the unit outcomes in terms of three different characteristics and to rate the overall quality of the stated outcomes. Each description produced by the prospective teacher and each rating provided by the college supervisor are described below.

1. *Description of outcomes.* Three descriptive measures are presented in Figures 6.9 and 6.10 and Table 6.2. Each measure is to be completed by prospective teachers before their TWSs are initiated.

Figure 6.9. Time Estimate for the TWS–Description

In the space below, indicate the time/length* of the teaching/learning unit addressed in this work sample by checking the appropriate box.

Less than 2 weeks	☐	2 weeks	☐
3 weeks	☐	4 weeks	☐
5 weeks	☐	More than 5 weeks	☐

* Time is given in weeks but may also be interpreted as the instructional equivalent of weeks; i.e., five 50-minute periods of instruction equal a week at the secondary level.

The estimate of time required for the unit (see Figure 6.9) enables the reader to determine immediately whether the TWS meets Western's standard for temporal length. TWSs at Western must be at least 2 full weeks in length "or the instructional equivalent" (Ayres et al., 1996, p. 10). The statement of the unit's length also helps the reader to begin making a judgment as to the appropriate-

Figure 6.10. Number of Objectives and Content Areas Addressed–Description

Please indicate the number of objectives addressed in this work sample.

____

____

____

Please indicate the content area(s) addressed in this work sample, e.g., science, mathematics, social studies, language arts, physical education, health education.

____

____

____

Table 6.2. The Kind and Complexity of Outcomes—Description

Use the codes and the table below to classify *each* learning outcome addressed in your work sample.

Code	Outcome kind
1 =	Cognitive
2 =	Affective
3 =	Psychomotor
4 =	Creative/aesthetic
5 =	Moral/ethical
6 =	Functional performance/construction
7 =	Other (please specify)

Outcome Complexity

1 = Low	Cognitive outcomes that address recognition/recall or comprehension; affective outcomes that address receiving or responding; psychomotor outcomes that address preparedness; outcomes from only one content area; outcomes that do not allow for variability in pupils' ability
2 = Medium	Cognitive outcomes that address application or analysis; affective outcomes that address valuing or organization; psychomotor outcomes that address proficiency; outcomes from two content areas; outcomes that allow for some variability in pupils' ability
3 = High	Cognitive outcomes that address synthesis, evaluation, or reformulation; affective outcomes that address characterization by value; psychomotor outcomes that address automaticity or adaptation; outcomes from more than two content areas; outcomes that allow for maximum variability in pupils' ability

Outcome number	Outcome kind	Outcome complexity
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		

ness of the plans in allowing children to attain goals that "vary by kind and complexity." A unit of only 2 weeks with complex objectives for two or more domains would likely raise readers' skepticism.

The second descriptive measure (Figure 6.10) merely asks the prospective teacher to state how many outcomes (objectives) make up the TWS and to identify which content areas or disciplines the unit contains. Those pieces of information help the reader to begin to understand the curricular complexity of the TWS. If, for example, the teacher preparation program expects a multidisciplinary unit and the prospective teacher states that the unit involves only mathematics, the reader immediately knows that the student's rationale for the unit's objectives will need to address this apparent omission.

The final descriptive measure the prospective teacher is to complete requires an analysis of the unit's outcomes by kind (domain type) and complexity (highest taxonomic category of TWS). Prospective teachers use the codes in Table 6.2 to complete the form. Readers of the prospective teacher's analysis will know whether more than one domain was included and which general domain levels were included in the unit.

Two ideas related to Table 6.2 need to be mentioned. First, prospective teachers need instruction and practice in completing such a form, as many of its concepts are difficult to master and to employ reliably. Second, readers need to at least spot check the content of Table 6.2, as prospective teachers, even after the best of instruction, may have difficulty completing the description without errors.

2. *Clarity of outcomes.* As college supervisors at Western evaluate the outcomes selected by prospective teachers for their work samples, they are asked to review both the clarity and the appropriateness of the objectives. The formative measure for clarity is discussed below. The measure for appropriateness (alignment) follows.

Three variables are embedded in the measure of clarity—clear articulation of the objectives, the likelihood the children will comprehend the objectives, and whether other teachers will view the objectives as being sensible (see Table 6.3). College supervisors are asked to rate whether each indicator describes the degree of presence of that variable in the written TWS outcomes and then to

Table 6.3. Clarity of Outcomes–Rating

Circle the number in column 2 or 3 that best reflects the clarity of the outcomes presented in the work sample. For the summary rating, please provide a holistic judgment (on the 6-point scale) about the overall clarity of the learning outcomes developed.

Indicator	**No (0)**	**Yes (1)**
As a whole, the outcomes are clearly articulated.	0	1
As a whole, the outcomes are likely to be understood by pupils at the developmental levels typically found in this setting.	0	1
As a whole, the outcomes would make sense to other teachers in similar settings.	0	1
Summary rating: (unclear, poorly articulated) 1 2 3 4 5 6 (clearly articulated)		

provide a summary rating based on a judgment of the overall clarity of the outcomes. It is assumed, and much literature on effective teachers supports the premise, that the clarity of one's instructional targets enhances children's opportunities to learn.

3. *Appropriateness of outcomes.* The measure for appropriateness of the unit's outcomes (see Table 6.4) asks the college supervisor to judge whether the objectives are aligned with school, district, or state goals; with current pupils' skills and abilities; and with theories of human development (developmental appropriateness). As in the previous assessment for judging clarity of the objectives, the college supervisor is asked to rate all the characteristics and then provide a summative rating.

Table 6.4. Appropriateness of Outcomes—Rating

Several competencies relate to the *appropriateness* of learning goals, both in terms of the school, district, and state curriculum, and the children being taught. Circle the number that best reflects the evidence presented in the work sample. For the summary rating, provide a holistic judgment (on the 6-point scale) about the overall appropriateness of the objectives developed for the work sample.

Objectives for the unit of instruction—	**No (0)**	**Yes (1)**
Are consistent with the school's long-term curriculum goals	No reference or match with school curriculum (0)	Objectives cross-referenced with school curriculum (1)
Are consistent with state and district standards	No reference or match with district curriculum and CIM, CAM, or PASS standards* (0)	Objectives cross-referenced with district curriculum and CIM, CAM, and/or PASS standards* (1)
Are consistent with the physical and mental maturity of pupils	No application of theories of human development evident (0)	Theories of human development evident in the selection and development of the unit's objectives (1)
Reflect the current performance level of pupils with respect to the objectives established for a unit of instruction	No discussion of current pupils' performance included (0)	Current pupils' performance a part of the selection or development of the unit's objectives (1)
Summary rating: (inappropriate) 1 2 3 4 5 6 (excellent)		

* CIM (Certificate of Initial Mastery) and CAM (Certificate of Advanced Mastery) are standards Oregon students are expected to meet to demonstrate their academic attainments. Most pupils are expected to attain the CIM in Grade 10 and CAM in Grade 12. PASS (Proficiency-Based Admissions Standards System) is a portfolio system developed by the Oregon University System to provide high school graduates a means of displaying their academic skills against a set of prescribed standards.

4. *Holistic judgment of the quality of TWS outcomes.* Finally, the college supervisor is asked to consider the information and ratings in the previous five measures (estimate of time, number of outcomes, outcomes by kind and complexity, clarity, and alignment with goals) and complete another rating to provide a holistic judgment regarding the quality of the outcomes found in the work sample (see Table 6.5). (The reader is reminded that the measures shown in the preceding tables are used for instructional purposes.) Faculty ask students, for example, to develop a set of objectives for their practicum classroom or for a simulated setting. Those objectives are then described using Table 6.2 and Figures 6.9 and 6.10 and rated by the faculty member using Tables 6.2 to 6.5. Such thorough feedback supports the development of a crucial TWS skill.

Table 6.5. Holistic Judgment of the TWS Outcomes–Rating

On the 6-point scale below, provide a holistic judgment about the overall quality of the objectives delineated in the work sample. Remember to transfer this "score" to the work sample summary sheet.

Very poor	Poor	Fair	Good	Very good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5	6

Alignment Decisions–Instructional Plans With Goals and Objectives

If one expects students to skillfully align TWS instruction with outcomes, then students must acquire a repertoire of teaching strategies as well as some knowledge of how to develop plans. This section presents some teaching activities Western faculty have successfully used in teaching students how to align instruction with outcomes. A more complete discussion of adapting TWSM instruction, particularly to pupils' needs, is presented in chapter 7; a more complete discussion of teaching strategies associated with TWS is found in chapter 8.

1. *Types of special education lessons.* With those learning to become special education teachers, Elizabeth Dohrn discusses five types or models of lessons that students are encouraged to employ, depending on the outcome sought or the point in the unit's curriculum:

- *Acquisition*—The instructional goal focuses on helping the pupil demonstrate knowledge or how to perform a skill *accurately,* regardless of the time it may take the pupil to do it.
- *Proficiency*—The focus is on performing the skill at a quick, somewhat automated level, often measured in terms of rate or *fluency.*
- *Maintenance*—After students reach a high level of mastery, the instructional goal is to provide periodic *practice and feedback* to ensure that pupils retain knowledge or skills.
- *Generalization*—A lesson promotes the pupil's ability to demonstrate the skill in response to a *variety of stimuli* different from those used in acquisition instruction.

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- *Adaptation*—The student uses the skill in a *new area* of application. Mercer and Mercer (1998) refer to this ability as *problem solving*.

Through class discussions, Dohrn ensures her students are familiar with each of these categories; individuals then design lessons in which they identify the types of instructional models they are employing. Even within a single TWS lesson, students are to categorize each instructional step by stating in the plan's margin which of the above models the step exemplifies.

2. *Types of general education lessons.* Some Western general education faculty have begun to incorporate content from the pamphlet *How to Use Standards in the Classroom* as they teach students about instructional models. The pamphlet categorizes several strategies:

- *Introductory*—used to "stimulate student interest in the topic and motivate students to participate in the unit of study"
- *Enabling*—activities help "students learn and demonstrate the knowledge, skills, and habits of mind needed to attain the identified standards"
- *Culminating*—"activities through which students demonstrate their learning of most or all standards identified as the focus of the study. Culminating activities are more often included in interdisciplinary and integrated units than in discipline-specific or multidisciplinary units"[6] (Harris & Carr, 1996, p. 21)

The advantages of this system are that it is easy for students to learn and it clearly implies where each type of lesson or lesson step is most likely to be found in a unit of instruction. It does, however, gloss over the variety of learning styles children bring to an instructional setting. It may be that the above structure, which is somewhat prescriptive compared with what Dohrn employs, is a very useful first step in discussing instructional models with beginners. The strategies presented by Dohrn may be most appropriate as a second step.

3. *Modeling models—Kyle.* Both Jacqueline Kyle and George Cabrera, another Western faculty member, believe strongly that students can effectively adapt instruction to the outcomes, assessment, context, and children only if they know several teaching models. As a result, both instructors present a series of lessons in which they model the models they want their students to learn. They teach brief lessons in which they model lesson structures such as

- Concept attainment
- Cooperative learning
- Deductive instruction
- Direct instruction
- Use of functional materials (menus, newspapers)
- Inductive instruction
- Instructional theory into practice
- Lecture
- Lecture with discussion

- Questioning strategies
- Socratic dialogue
- Thematic learning
- Use of manipulatives
- Use of media

Kyle begins her introduction of modeling models by reminding students that they need to be able to teach in a variety of ways—"Do you remember how boring it is to sit in a class where the instructor teaches the same way, day after day?" She then assigns a section about teaching models from a general methods or educational psychology text for students to read. Each day across several weeks, Kyle tells the students which model she will use as she teaches other content for her course. At the end of the day, they take 15 minutes to discuss the model—what steps the teacher took, what kinds of outcomes they are most appropriate for, and expectations for the children. Her conclusion is that students acquire a broader repertoire of strategies. When she had the opportunity to supervise some of these same prospective teachers in their student teaching experiences, they seemed to employ a greater number of strategies and were more likely to employ them in accord with the needs of the children and the units' outcomes.

4. *Modeling models—Cabrera.* Cabrera uses a similar approach in his instruction about teaching models. He introduces the discussion by highlighting for the students concepts drawn from cognitive psychology that underlie the value of employing a model to aid student learning about a complex system. Next, he uses a very specific format as he models a teaching strategy:

- He gives the student a script of his lesson, including a complete lesson plan.
- He teaches a lesson using the day's chosen model. The lesson content is on a topic related to the course objectives but not specific to the teaching model.
- After the modeling, Cabrera and the students discuss the purposes and procedures of the day's teaching model.
- The students then create a 15-minute lesson, adapting Cabrera's lesson plan to their content.
- The students teach their plan to a group of classmates (often half the class), and the lesson is videotaped.
- Each person in the group to whom the plan was taught critiques the student's performance to that person.
- After reading the critiques and watching their taped lessons, the students write an evaluation of their lessons.

Cabrera's purposes for the modeling are to show his students how to implement each model, provide an opportunity to try out each model, and provide feedback on the implementation; develop a personal repertoire of teaching strategies to draw upon when constructing TWS plans aligned with the needs of the children, the outcomes sought, and the time available; and practice writing daily plans and preparing reflective analyses of one's own teaching. Though

Cabrera's instructional strategy is complex and time-consuming, the outcomes addressed are very important and aligned with the TWS expectations the prospective teachers will experience later in their professional preparation.

The goal for both Cabrera and Kyle is that as their students prepare to align their instruction to the needs of the pupils, they also understand the array of instructional strategies available to them. Adaptation requires knowledge of alternatives.

5. *Portraying instructional models graphically.* An even more direct method of presenting teaching models is that employed by Helen Woods. She asks students to read a paper written by Fogarty (1991) or Lake (1998). To ensure that students have internalized the content on teaching models, Woods asks small groups of students to develop a graphic to portray one of the models assigned to them. The assumption is that as the group designs possible forms of the graphic for which they are responsible, they are likely to develop a more sophisticated understanding of the model. As they and their classmates review the models Fogarty and Lake present, all the students will more likely recall the models as they review the graphics. As with Cabrera and Kyle, the ultimate outcome for Woods is to develop in her students knowledge of an array of models to allow them to be better prepared to adapt instruction to pupils' needs.

Lesson Plans

Many text authors provide templates for the structure of lesson plans. The following lesson plan models were developed by Western faculty.

1. *Lesson plan—severely disabled.* In working with students whose TWSs will involve teaching children with severe or mild disabilities, Bev Herzog instructs her students to employ a very specific set of steps as they prepare plans to teach academic subjects to a single child. The example in Figure 6.11 portrays what a student might prepare for a 3-week unit of instruction with a single child around an academic or developmental topic. The preassessment came from a task analysis that provides baseline information for the TWS. The instructional assumption is the child will need to meet a specified criterion before going on to another step. The plan also includes a detailed data-gathering structure (see data system in the figure) a prospective teacher can employ, when it is completed, to great advantage when writing a reflective statement about the employment of this TWS. This lesson format is used at Western for the daily lesson plans in a TWS for teaching an academic topic to a child with special needs. Before prospective special education teachers use this format in the field, they practice using it in their classes where the feedback focuses on their alignment of lesson components and on decisions related to the plan's scope and sequence. At Western, students also work in a practicum setting concurrent with their course so they begin to use the format almost immediately.

Figure 6.11. Lesson Plan Format Plus Example—Severely Disabled

Objective:	Given 30 Meyer Johnson (MJ) pictures and 30 printed words, the child will match the pictures to the appropriate written words with 100% accuracy over 3 consecutive weekly probes.
Rationale:	These words are commonly used in menus. The child will use them to select lunch items from the school cafeteria. They will be generalized later to the community.
Task Analysis:	See below.
Procedures:	Child goes to workstation with instructor. Child opens notebook. Child removes pictures and word cards from pocket. Child matches picture cards to word cards. Child asks instructor to check.
Criterion to move to next step:	100% accuracy required for 3 consecutive days.
Setting, time, and place:	DLC* during schoolwork time—1:1 instruction. Child and instructor at small table (workstation).
Materials:	Notebook with two pockets for cards; 30 picture cards and 30 word cards.
Reinforcement:	Positive verbal feedback for every correct response.
Error corrections:	Interrupt error and give least prompt needed for correct response to occur.
Data system:	Record each response as correct (X) or incorrect (0). Prompted responses are incorrect. Determine percentage correct for each day.

* Developmental Learning Center is an Oregon district's name for its life skills program for children with severe disabilities.

Task Analysis

Phase 1—Student matches MJ picture cards that have the word written under the picture to identical MJ picture cards that also have the word written under the picture.

Step I Matches one MJ picture to corresponding MJ picture with one distracter.
Step II Matches one MJ picture to corresponding MJ picture with two distracters.
Step III Matches one MJ picture to corresponding MJ picture with three distracters.

Phase 2—Student matches MJ picture cards that have the word written under the picture to the correct corresponding cards that have only the word written on them.

Step I Matches one MJ picture to corresponding word with one distracter.
Step II Matches one MJ picture to corresponding word with two distracters.
Step III Matches one MJ picture to corresponding word with three distracters.

Phase 3—Student matches MJ picture cards that have a picture only on them to the corresponding cards that have a word only written on them.

Step I Matches one MJ picture to corresponding word with one word distracter.
Step II Matches one MJ picture to corresponding word with two distracters.
Step III Matches one MJ picture to corresponding word with three distracters.

Figure 6.11. (continued)

Data System

Program: ________________________________
Student: ________________ Instructional Cue: ________________
Setting: ________________ Materials Needed: ________________
Task Objective: ________________________________

Date/Initial*	**Phase/Step**	**Trials**										**Comments**

Prompting Strategy:

Response Time:

Data Key:

* The request for an initial is to verify that other professionals or aides who work with the child have seen and are employing this academic plan.

2. *Lesson plan—mildly disabled.* Another lesson plan format was developed by Steve Isaacson (now a faculty member at Portland State University, OR) and later adapted by Elizabeth Dohrn to guide those who are learning to become teachers of children with mild disabilities. In this latter format (see Figure 6.12 and Appendix I), students are provided a guide to consider as they plan an instructional unit. The format calls for an estimate of instructional time for each step, reminds students to begin lessons with a review of previous instruction, asks questions in the instructional section to remind students of three

Figure 6.12. Lesson Plan Format—Mildly Disabled

Work Sample Instructional Plan

Pupil: ____________________ Content area: ________________________

Step plan for sequence step: _____ Implementation date: ___________________

Intermediate objective: ____

Opening

Review:

Goal:

Materials preparation

Body of lesson

Procedures

Sequence of examples

Estimated time

How I will explain and model:

How I will prompt:

How I will check pupil's knowledge or skill:

Closing transition

Follow-Up Activity/Independent Work

Description of data-keeping procedures

What data will be collected?

How will they be displayed?

Where in the lesson will data be collected?

__ Opening __ Check __Independent work

How often will data be collected?

__ Daily __ Every other day

__ Weekly __ Other: ____

(Include pre/postsamples of pupil's work.)

instructional steps, and provides several very specific questions regarding assessment plans and how those plans correlate with long-range assessment strategies. The lesson plan format is best used when prospective teachers use a direct instructional model in working with children. Students are given the model and asked to prepare plans using it. They receive feedback from the course instructor, particularly about the alignment of the plan to the scope and sequence of the children's instructional program. When the planning format is used in a TWS, students complete a task analysis (or use one found in the children's IEPs) and employ that as the structure for the work sample. (When the format calls for Step and Sequence, it refers to the components of the task analysis.)

3. *Lesson plan—practicing teachers.* In chapter 5, we discussed the specific directions Russell French provides to the 1st-year teachers with whom he works in Louisiana regarding the components he and his colleagues expect to find in a TWS. He also reminds the teachers how a TWS is similar to what they did in student teaching. Directions for the TWS need to be clear, because the teachers with whom French works usually interpret them with limited help. An example of the clarity French has to include is found in the specifications he provides in a lesson plan form (see Figure 6.13). In his directions, French says,

Figure 6.13. Lesson Plan Format for Practicing Teachers

Daily Plan of Instruction

Teacher: ______________________ School: ______________________

School system: ______________________ Semester/year: ______________________

Unit/title/designation: ____

Day: __________ Objectives/outcomes targeted: ______________________

A. In the "Activities" column, specify what you will do and what pupils will do. List those activities in the order they will occur. In the "Materials/Media/Technology" column, list the print and nonprint materials and the technology needed for each activity.

Activities	*Materials/Media/Technology*

B. *Assessments:* If you are planning either formal or informal assessment of pupil progress toward one or more of the learning objectives, describe your assessment procedure. If the assessment will be a written quiz or test, attach a copy to this form.

C. *Reflections:* How did today's lesson go? What adjustments to your plan did you have to make? What did your assessments, if there were any, suggest about instruction in the remainder of the unit?

Source: French, 1997, p. 19.

> We have provided a "Daily Plan of Instruction" [Figure 6.13] which you can use to create a plan for each day of the unit of instruction. One copy of this form is included in your package. Duplicate as many copies as you need. You must create a plan for each day.

> *Daily Plan of Instruction*
>
> 1. Day: ___ (Number the daily plans consecutively—1, 2, 3, etc.)
> 2. Objectives/outcomes targeted: List the objective(s) that your instruction today will address. You may have the same objective listed on more than one day's plan because more than one day's instruction may be needed for pupil mastery. All objectives you listed on . . . your work sample should appear somewhere on your daily plan sheets.
> 3. Items A, B, and C are self-explanatory. Items A and B are to be completed before you begin instruction in the unit. Item C should be completed after you have completed the day's instruction.
>
> Remember that you are teaching a unit of work—not unrelated, day-to-day sets of activities. Complete daily plans (A, B) for the entire unit before you begin the unit. If you have to, replan during the unit. If you find the unit will take longer or needs to be changed in major ways, attach new daily plans to their predecessors where necessary. (French, 1997, p. 6)

Clearly, French wants his students to have few questions about how to proceed with the development of their TWSs. He provides directions for the new teachers about the number of lessons they are to develop, when they are to be completed, what components are expected, and how to handle changes that inevitably occur in any lengthy unit of instruction.

4. *Lesson plans—applying the skills*. To ensure that the steps involved in developing a lesson plan were understood, Bob Ayres first showed his students several lesson plan formats. Students were then directed to work in small groups, organized by grade level or content area they wished to teach, to involve themselves in the following activities:

1. Select a topic area that interests each group member.
2. Develop a lesson plan for the topic using whichever format they prefer.
3. Put the plan on an overhead transparency and explain it to classmates.
4. Students and faculty ask questions about the proposed plan, such as What would happen if you tried X? Did you consider doing Y?
5. After all presentations are made, the class is asked to develop a list of components that a plan should include.

5. *Lesson plans—ethics*. Susan Wood tries to impress upon her students that their values are often manifested in their plans. She encourages students to discuss in a brief statement of rationale for their plans answers to questions that reveal their concerns with being ethical in their instructional activities:

1. Will all the pupils be involved?
2. Will any learners be shut out?
3. Will you be able to provide feedback confidentially?

Aligning Outcomes and Instruction With Assessment Data

Chapter 9 presents a full discussion of the steps taught to students regarding the development of an assessment plan that is aligned with the unit's outcomes and instruction as well as pupils' and contextual needs. Planning for assessment should also be part of the developmental phase of a TWS.

Rationale for Alignment Decisions

One of Western's latest additions to TWS components has been a section in which students explain the reasons behind their planning, instruction, and assessment decisions. The rationale section was added because students made so many decisions college and classroom supervisors wanted to understand. Because it is a recent addition, Western faculty have somewhat different expectations as to what constitutes a well-written rationale. This section provides some of the instructional elements faculty have generated in explaining to their students what they want to read in the rationale section of a TWS. Some faculty focus the rationale discussion on philosophical decisions, while others emphasize procedural decisions.

1. *Mildly disabled.* Western faculty teaching prospective special education teachers ask for the rationale to include a discussion of the decisions underlying the instructional strategy chosen. In working with students preparing to become special education teachers, faculty ask their students to answer the questions shown in Figure 6.14. The prospective teacher is prompted to explain at least four very significant instructional decisions.

Figure 6.14. Components of a Rationale--Special Education

Rationale for the instructional approach:

1. In what ways does the diagnostic information (taken from formal and informal information describing current level of functioning) impact the instructional plan?

   Address all that apply

   (a) Skill level
   (b) Level of learning
   (c) Processing problems
   (d) Learning styles
   (e) Interests/motivational factors
   (f) Management considerations

2. How will you review items previously mastered so pupils will retain them?

3. How will you promote future generalizations (to regular class, to home and community, to new applications) when simple acquisition has been attained?

4. How will you accommodate the pupil's cultural, social, and linguistic background?

2. *Severely disabled.* When teaching their students about working with children who have severe disabilities, the Western special education faculty also require a rationale in the TWS. Prospective teachers are asked to explain the answers to two questions:

1. How will this plan benefit the child's learning of lifelong skills?
2. How will this plan tie to the child's IEP?

3. *Elementary education.* Gary Welander, when working with students preparing to become elementary or early childhood education teachers, asks the students to explain in their rationale decisions on questions such as the following:

- Why is this TWS meaningful and appropriate to these pupils?
- How are the assessments you have chosen similar to activities these children would undertake in the real world?
- How are the goals for this TWS outgrowths of the year-long goals for this grade level?
- In what ways did you sequence instruction?

Welander is much more concerned with the philosophical decisions students make, though clearly the last question asks about a procedural decision.

4. *Secondary education.* Another view regarding the necessary components of a rationale is represented in the work of George Cabrera. He asks for responses from his students regarding both philosophical and procedural questions. Cabrera asks students two questions related to procedures—1 and 2 in Figure 6.15. The remainder of the questions are related principally to philosophical analyses.

5. *General education—practicing teachers.* Russ French uses a similar format in stating the components of a rationale for his group of new teachers (see item 5 in Figure 6.16). French's format embeds the rationale in the description of the TWS unit prepared by the teacher. The two questions asked in French's format for a rationale are philosophical. Figures in chapter 5 show other sets of directions to students regarding the expectation for what is to be included in a TWS rationale. Expectations in both Figure 5.6, item 2, and Figure 5.7, item 5, are quite clear regarding the scope of the rationale statement. Both sets of directions request a description of the teacher's procedural and philosophical decisions.

Figure 6.15. Components of a Rationale–Secondary Education

Rationale/relationship to the curriculum standards:

1. Address the principal reasons your pupils are studying this topic; i.e., why was this topic included in the curriculum?
2. Why was the inclusion of the topic at this time appropriate?
3. How will knowledge of this topic serve the pupils?
4. How will the children's knowledge of this topic serve society?
5. How do your goals relate to
   a. The district's goals?
   b. The district's CIM and CAM outcomes?
   c. Oregon's Common Curriculum Goals?
   d. Oregon's Essential Learning Skills?
   e. Standards from national learned societies?

Figure 6.16. Components of a Rationale–Practicing Teachers

Unit Description

1. Subject Area(s)
2. Topic, Body of Knowledge/Skills
3. Length of Unit (no. of days/class periods)
4. Learning Objectives/Outcomes To Be Accomplished by Students (two or more required)
5. Rationale for Objectives/Outcomes (Why are they important? How are they related to state standards or curriculum guides?)

Though teacher education faculty at Western have not yet reached a consensus regarding the elements to be included in a statement of rationale, two views prevail. If a set of standards for a rationale asks students to discuss both the procedural and philosophical decisions underlying the development of their rationale, it would seem to be inclusive of the important ideas supporting construction of the prospective teacher's work sample.

Management Plan

An element that faculty at Western have just begun to consider is whether to ask students to include in their TWS a plan for behavior management of the children. As we have said regularly throughout this handbook, the one aspect of teaching all beginners worry about is management. It seems likely that we at Western will ask students to include a management plan principally as a service to them. Students will benefit from thinking through questions such as how to respond to discipline problems, how much freedom children should have to move about the room, how much involvement pupils should have in making curricular decisions, how formally pupils should address the teacher, and how much the teacher should rely on the school's administrative staff for support in discipline. New teachers will find their classroom lives much more pleasant once they have decided on the principles of management they will follow and the rules they will implement.

1. *Developing a management system.* One faculty member, Christy Perry, diligently aids her students in developing their own management systems. Perry assigns students the task of reading about each of the following systems before developing their personal TWS management plans. As a first step, Perry provides readings and discussions for her students about management systems, including the following models:

- Kounin
- Judicious discipline
- Assertive discipline (Canter)
- Jones
- Glasser
- Gordon
- Curwin and Mendler (Discipline With Dignity)
- Dreikur
- Cooperating teacher's system

Figure 6.17. Management Systems Assignment

Goal

1.0 The student will establish a classroom environment conducive to pupils' learning.

Objectives

The student will

1.1 Analyze each of the different models of pupil management.
  - Summarize the system
  - Identify the pros and cons of the system

1.2 Develop a personal system of management.

1.3 Implement the personal management system in the context of the cooperating teacher's classroom.

Resources

- *Building Classroom Discipline* (Charles, 1996)
- *Educational Psychology: Theory and Practice* (Slavin, 1997)

Assignment

Step 1: Read about each of the above models.

Step 2: Write a paper that
  - Summarizes the models
  - Identifies the pros and cons of *each* model
  - Identifies the portions of the model(s) you might like to incorporate in your own management system

Due ________

Step 3: Develop a written personal management system and submit with your TWS plans.

Step 4: Revise a written personal management system and submit with your TWS report.

Figure 6.17 presents the descriptive materials Perry uses with this assignment to develop a management plan as readings and lectures and discussions. The students, in completing steps 2 to 4 in Figure 6.17, present three different statements of their management plans. When they are finished with the final step, they have read and thought about their plans, developed their plans and tested them in a classroom, and revised their beliefs. Perry's students have developed clearly stated goals for how they wish to manage their own classrooms. Prospective employers would likely find such clarity refreshing when they ask Perry's students in job interviews to describe how they plan to handle daily tasks and discipline problems.

2. *Testing students' management plans.* Sue Dauer uses a less formal though still effective method for helping students to think through management decisions. After watching practicum students or student teachers instruct and after learning a bit about the context of the classroom, Dauer asks students in a conference setting how they think they should deal with various hypothetical discipline or management problems. Dauer thus tries to help them prepare not for specific incidents but to begin to develop generalized management strategies that may still be specific to their context.

3. *Special education management plans.* When students in special education teacher preparation programs plan and implement a unit to teach pupils desirable social behaviors, a management plan is in progress. Steve Bigaj, a Western professor in special education, has pointed out that TWSs called *behavioral units* are in fact management plans. If a social problem occurs during the TWS unit, Bigaj expects his students to develop a behavioral (management) plan to deal with the unwanted action and then to implement the plan. He also expects to find a discussion of the success of the plan to be included in the student's reflection on the TWS unit.

Though Western faculty concur that a management plan should be part of students' TWSs, no agreed-upon description of the component or criteria for judging its quality exists at this time.

Modeling Planning Skills for Students

Though it is common for faculty to model parts of the planning process, only one faculty team has to this point developed a strategy for modeling the whole planning activity. At the end of an academic quarter, Sue Dauer and her teaching colleagues have their students observe them as they plan how to instruct these same students the following term (see box, next page). Dauer and her teaching partners use a class session to model their planning. As the students sit circling the table where the faculty team works, Dauer's team develops their curriculum, sequence, calendar, and assignments. Called a "think-aloud" by Dauer, the point of the session is to portray for students how veteran faculty work through the correspondence between their goals, objectives, instruction, and assessment. The students have the chance to watch their own instructors worry about decisions related to alignment, time, resources, feedback, and materials. Students report they find it intriguing to watch planning for their instruction using the same concepts they have spent the previous quarter learning to implement.

Alignment Decisions–Rating Instructional Plans

Prospective teachers at Western find two scoring rubrics against which their TWS plans may be compared during instruction in their preparation program. The first deals with the alignment between the outcomes and the other components of the TWS unit as well as the accuracy of the content taught by the students. The second rubric assesses the planned use of instructional time in the TWS. Both rubrics clarify for prospective teachers how the major elements of their TWS plan will be assessed.

1. *Alignment and content accuracy in TWS planning.* One of the most important conceptual underpinnings of TWSM is that of alignment. An effective TWS is assumed to contain goals, objectives, instructional materials, and assessment aligned to one another *and* to the needs of pupils. As a consequence, the rubric employed during formative assessment at Western to rate TWS plans during the instructional phase is made up of seven measures of alignment variables or

"Think-Alouds": A Method for Modeling Planning Activities

Sue C. Dauer

Modeling for students is a powerful tool that works well in any classroom and at any level, preschool through adult education. The strategy can be used in various formats, from "think-alouds" to actual planning for the following term.

The teacher preparation team on which I recently worked at Western agreed that the best way to help our students understand the process of team planning was to show them firsthand how we did it. The instructors sat around a table in front of the classroom surrounded by calendars, resource materials, and ideas. The students were asked to gather their chairs close to observe the process. Before beginning our planning activity, we told them, "We are modeling what we want you to do. We will model what teachers actually do in planning together. Watch for the planning components we use in our work."

We began by talking among ourselves about where to begin planning for the next term. Once we began our work, we quickly became involved in the process and were oblivious to the 40 students watching us. We juggled schedules, decided which days the students should be in their practicum sites, worked with calendars from several school districts, and selected themes we would cover throughout the term. We even took a coffee break as we worked through our planning.

Many of our students commented that this strategy helped them to better understand what is needed for effective teaching: curricular knowledge, resources, reflection, collaboration, trust, and negotiation.

I have also used think-alouds to help students understand how to begin planning their TWSs. I stand at the overhead projector jotting lists, thoughts, goals, and ideas, all the while saying aloud what I am thinking. I ponder, "What if?" "What topic is of interest to me and is part of the district curriculum?" "How shall I construct the preassessment?" "What is the best way to connect state and district goals to this unit of study?" With each question, I make notes on the overhead. I am showing the students orally and in writing the mental process I am using. As I work, periodically I stop to help them understand what I am doing by asking questions:

- What is going on here?
- What was I trying to model for you?
- What planning strategies did I just use?
- What process was I going through?

I complete the modeling activity by asking them to list with me on the chalkboard what they saw happening. They come away with a set of procedures to consult when they are preparing for a planning session for themselves as individuals or with their teaching colleagues. We complete the lesson by discussing the advantage to learners of modeling as an instructional device. Most prospective teachers come to appreciate the technique and try to employ it, when appropriate, in their TWSs.

When helping prospective teachers understand the difficulty their pupils may have getting started on a writing assignment, an art project, or where and how to proceed with a research project, think-alouds are valuable. When I first started using this strategy, I was tentative about saying what I was thinking publicly. I came to find, however, that students appreciate knowing how a seasoned educator approaches planning.

I have begun to use think-alouds to model how I plan lessons. While working with students in the first term of their professional education program, the faculty with whom I worked agreed to make overhead transparencies to show their lesson plans for each day. We then described for the students what thinking went into planning the lesson, including decisions about goals and objectives, materials needed, time allotments, instructional activities, and closure.

At Western, we have also tried to design our professional education program to model the methods and strategies we want our students to use in their school settings. For example, we teach as a team, use active learning as much as is feasible, find out what our students are accomplishing, and learn to know our students well. Think-alouds help to foster those goals.

Table 6.6. Quality of the TWS Instructional Plans–Rating

Circle the number that best reflects the evidence presented in the work sample. In the summary column, provide a holistic judgment (on the 6-point scale) about the overall quality of the activities, materials, and equipment/technologies developed for the work sample.

Written plans provide evidence that:	No (0)	Yes (1)
Objectives of the unit of instruction will be useful in formulating daily lessons and in evaluating the progress of pupils toward the attainment of unit goals.	Objectives do not logically build on each other toward unit goals. (0)	Objectives logically build on each other toward unit goals and provide feedback on pupils' progress. (1)
Content, skills, and processes have been included that will assist pupils in accomplishing desired unit outcomes.	Content, skills, and/or processes do not seem to facilitate stated unit outcomes. (0)	Content, skills, and/or processes definitely facilitate stated unit outcomes. (1)
Learning activities have been designed that will lead to their acquisition.	Activities are not sufficient to allow pupils to acquire unit goals. (0)	Activities are sufficient to allow pupils to acquire unit goals. (1)
Plans are consistent with research findings on how pupils learn.*	No application of theories of learning is evident. (0)	Theories of learning are evident in the selection and development of the unit of learning goals. (1)
Materials, equipment, and technologies needed to teach a unit of instruction have been selected and are appropriate.	Materials, equipment, and/or technologies have not been selected. (0)	Materials, equipment, and/or technologies have been selected and are appropriate for the unit. (1)
Unit lesson plans have been adapted for exceptional learners and for pupils with varying cultural, social, and linguistic backgrounds.	No adaptations have been made for pupils with varying needs. (0)	Appropriate adaptations have been made for pupils with varying needs. (1)
Learning activities, pupil materials, and learning resources have been chosen that model respect and sensitivity for all cultures.	Activities and/or materials include portrayals that may be insensitive to other cultures. (0)	Activities and/or materials include portrayals that are sensitive to other cultures. (1)
Pupil materials and learning resources have been chosen that are likely to be content accurate.	Plans include material of questionable accuracy. (0)	Plans reflect overtly accurate content. (1)
Summary rating: (very weak plans) 1 2 3 4 5 6 (very strong plans)		

* In some cases, state or district goals may not be consistent with developmentally appropriate practices.

decisions—the first entries in Table 6.6. The eighth variable calls for a judgment as to the accuracy of the content included in the unit. After college supervisors assess each of the eight variables, they are asked to provide a summary rating of the quality of the unit plans.

2. *Feasibility of the TWS plan.* New teachers often have difficulty providing the appropriate amount of instructional time. It is common for them to overestimate the time some instructional events may require and underestimate others. Either error causes a deleterious effect on children's learning and can be terribly embarrassing for a student teacher. To focus the prospective teacher's attention on timing, the college supervisor assesses four temporal variables (see Table 6.7).

Table 6.7. Feasibility of the TWS Instructional Plan–Rating

Circle the number that best reflects the evidence presented in the work sample. In the column for summary rating, provide a holistic judgment (on the 6-point scale) about the overall quality of the time estimates developed for the work sample.

Written plans provide evidence that time estimates have been developed for:	**No (0)**	**Yes (1)**
Teacher-directed instruction	No (or unrealistic) estimates provided (0)	Thoughtful, realistic estimates provided (1)
Pupil-managed learning and practice	No (or unrealistic) estimates provided (0)	Thoughtful, realistic estimates provided (1)
Pupil evaluation and reporting	No (or unrealistic) estimates provided (0)	Thoughtful, realistic estimates provided (1)
Reteaching and problem solving	No (or unrealistic) estimates provided (0)	Thoughtful, realistic estimates provided (1)
Summary rating: (no estimate) 1 2 3 4 5 6 (highly realistic estimates)		

3. *Holistic judgment of the quality of TWS plans.* After college supervisors have rated the quality (alignment and content accuracy) and the feasibility (instructional time estimates) of the plan, they are also asked to provide a holistic judgment of the overall quality of TWS plans (see Table 6.8).

4. *Summative measure.* After the instructional plans have been submitted to the college supervisor for the student's final TWS, they are rated using the previously mentioned summative measure. A rating is assigned for two variables

Table 6.8. Holistic Rating of the Overall Quality of TWS Instructional Plans

On the 6-point scale below, provide a holistic judgment about the overall quality of instructional planning demonstrated in the work sample by this teacher.

Very poor	Poor	Fair	Good	Very good	Excellent
1	2	3	4	5	6

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discussed in this chapter (see Table 6.9—adapted from Table 3.5). Those two ratings become part of the overall summative rating made regarding the student's TWS.

The Challenge

Anyone who has taught planning skills to teacher education students knows the task is difficult and not an exciting venture. Teaching people to be clear and crisp in their thinking and writing is intellectually demanding, particularly for students. Learning the skills can be onerous, especially for nonanalytic students. When one adds the rigors of implementing concepts such as alignment, performance measures, authentic assessment, and rationale, the task of learning about TWSM can be arduous for students. David Wright, discussing the trying task of aligning goals and objectives, stated that too many printed goals are so nonspecific it is merely "an intellectual game" students play in matching their goals and objectives to an outside source.

It may be most effective (as well as kind) for faculty to work slowly as their students learn about TWSM. The student has so much to acquire and implement. It is easy for faculty, who have many goals to teach in the preparation program, to provide too little time and feedback regarding planning. Students need a great deal of time and feedback to practice all the skills associated with TWSM. Chapter 11 provides suggestions regarding practice and feedback for students.

Table 6.9. Summative Rating of Rationale and of Goals and Objectives

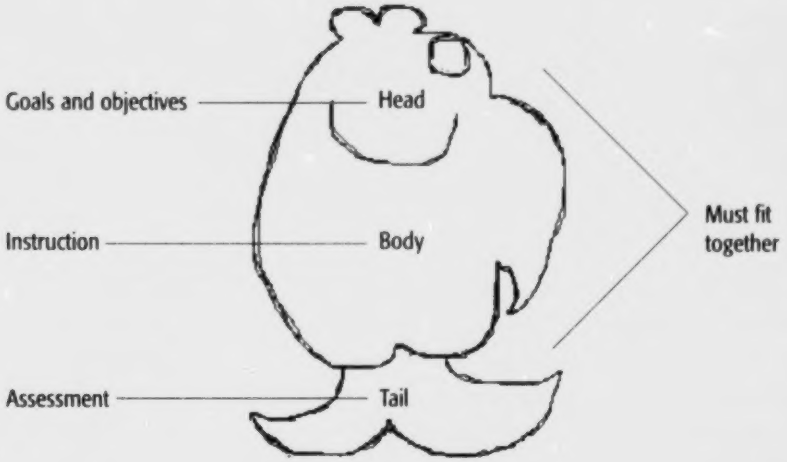
Dimension	1 beginning	2 emerging	3 developing	4 maturing	5 strong	6 exemplary
Rationale	Rationale for the work sample unit is weak, not clearly stated, and not supported.	<----------------------------------->				Rationale for the work sample unit is strong, clearly stated, and supported.
Goals and objectives	Unit goals and objectives are stated vaguely, are not developmentally appropriate, would not be clear to other teachers, are not aligned with state or district content standards, and are not appropriate for pupils' current performance levels.	<----------------------------------->				Unit goals and objectives are clearly stated, developmentally appropriate, consistent with state and district content standards, and appropriate for pupils' current performance levels and would be understandable to other teachers.

SUMMARY

This chapter has presented many ideas we believe should be helpful as faculty teach students about the planning skills associated with TWSM. It is likely, if one implements many of these suggestions, faculty will see fewer of what Susan Wood called "random lessons"—lessons with no relationship to district goals, children's needs, or future activities in the classroom. By learning about TWSM, students will understand that their lessons must be purposeful.

Moreover, if students learn most of the TWSM planning skills discussed in this chapter, they will be better able to prepare sets of lessons that are interrelated. Paula Bradfield-Kreider has described the parts of a lesson or unit as like a fish (see Figure 6.18). Once students are familiar with how to implement TWSM, lessons and sets of lessons can be better articulated, and students can flesh out the plan. Classroom and college supervisors should find such continuity refreshing and indicative of professional growth.

Figure 6.18. A Fish as a Metaphor for a Lesson Plan



NOTES

1. In a follow-up step, McConney asked students to specify how they would know when the children had successfully completed the tasks. She asked them to state behaviors the children were to exhibit. Clearly, the advantage of this latter step is to introduce two other planning concepts—measurable objectives and alignment with assessment strategies. McConney's approach seems to continue bringing together some of the most difficult planning concepts using the student's practicum setting as the instructional context. Students would experience less trouble comprehending the relevance of such concepts if McConney's guidance were available.

2. Many fine sources are available for teacher educators to use in teaching their students to write instructional objectives. Three texts widely used at Western are Lou Carey's *Measuring and Evaluating School Learning* (1988), Peter Airasian's *Classroom Assessment* (1997), and Robert Mager's *Measuring Instructional Results* (1984). This chapter, however, presents a few practice activities Western faculty use in helping their students master the writing of clear, measurable objectives.

3. Almost every general methods or assessment text provides a detailed discussion of, particularly, the cognitive taxonomy, commonly referred to as Bloom's Taxonomy, and some cover an effective taxonomy, such as Krathwohl's. See, e.g., Carey, 1988, and Airasian, 1997.

4. The expectation that a TWS would contain "outcomes of varying complexity" can be modified for prospective teachers working with some children in special education programs. In particular, "it may be appropriate that there is limited variation in their objectives and assessment and teaching strategies" when working with severely disabled children (Ayres, Girod, Ling, et al., 1996, p. 13).

5. The term *mental modeling* comes from the study of literacy and is a method of verbalizing one's thinking processes. Because students cannot observe directly someone's intellectual process of thinking through the components that will make up one's goals, prospective teachers can find it difficult to understand this complex process. Hence, mental modeling provides students with a method for seeing how their instructor goes about selecting goals.

6. The authors propose that teachers, after identifying a culminating activity, work backward to identify prerequisite behaviors children need to learn in the "introductory" or "enabling" lessons. This step would be similar to what was proposed in the objectives for teacher education students presented at the beginning of this chapter (en route behaviors). Paula Bradfield-Kreider recommends that her students include a culminating activity in their TWSs and design the activity in such a way that it can be used as a source of assessment data.

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Chapter 7

Adapting Teacher Work Sample Plans and Instruction to Pupils' Needs

by Elizabeth A. Dohrn, Educational Consultant

Goals for Teacher Educators

After reading this chapter, teacher educators will be able to

1. Identify assumptions behind adapting curriculum and instruction.
2. Increase teacher education students' knowledge and options regarding the adaptation of curriculum and instruction.
3. Be aware of measures suitable for assessing, both formatively and summatively, students' ability to develop adaptive strategies.

Objectives for Teacher Education Students

After reading this chapter, teacher educators will be able to help their students attain the following outcomes:

Objectives	**Sources of measures**
1. Gather information about children's special needs and the setting before instruction.	Table 7.4
2. Develop plans that include accommodations in objectives, procedures, and/or materials.	Tables 7.4, 7.5, & 7.6
3. Using formative assessment, continue to adapt instruction throughout the unit.	Figure 7.6

In many states, including Oregon, pupils are expected to demonstrate a high level of attainment through their performance on content standards and benchmarks. The underlying belief is that all children can learn and that it is the responsibility of educators to develop and design curriculum and instruction to facilitate progress. Higher standards have been found to lead to pupils' greater effort on school tasks and to more frequent class attendance (Natriello, 1982). But all children are different, and one size does not fit all in education. Schools serve children representing wide ranges in abilities and needs in educational settings historically designed to teach the "average" learner.

The general education curriculum is based on a set of knowledge and skills children need to achieve to pass to the next grade (Stainback & Stainback, 1996). The delivery of this curriculum has often taken the form of lectures by a teacher while children read textbooks and complete worksheets. If a child cannot learn through this method, he or she will likely fail and, in some settings, be excluded from general education classrooms. Children who perceive standards for their performance as unattainable are more likely to become disengaged from school (Natriello, 1982).

School improvement efforts regularly address issues of instruction and call for changes in educational practices to meet the challenges for improvement. Shortcomings have been identified in the formalized or bureaucratic approach that often includes instruction of a static body of information, inattention to accommodations for diversity, a focus on curriculum rather than the child, children's boredom with the curriculum, and disempowered individuals involved in the learning process. A more holistic perspective is currently receiving attention; it focuses on pupils' individual needs, a project-oriented curriculum that is more relevant to children's lives, teachers as facilitators of learning, and cooperative learning opportunities (Stainback & Stainback, 1996). This more recent perspective provides educators with opportunities to examine individual needs, interests, and abilities when designing, developing, and delivering instructional plans.

This chapter examines basic assumptions about designing and implementing curriculum and instruction in a TWS to help overcome these problems. Its goal is to help teachers learn to seek individual pupils' developmental abilities and cognitive, cultural, emotional, and physical needs. Building on components of the effective instruction literature, the chapter suggests strategies to adapt curriculum and instruction to meet individual children's needs, interests, and abilities during the development of a TWS.

EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Pupils' performance should determine the appropriateness of curriculum and the delivery of instruction. Focusing instructional decisions on how best to foster pupils' learning can be guided if the effective instruction literature is reviewed to provide connections between theory and practice. Algozzine, Ysseldyke, and Elliot (1997) developed such a structure when they identified specific principles to implement each component of the plan and how to manage, deliver, and evaluate them (see Table 7.1).

The model in Table 7.1 suggests how effective teaching involves incorporation of a systematic process for planning, managing, delivering, and assessing instruction necessary to facilitate learning. Given that children have diverse needs, the model is useful to teachers in that it points out ways to examine the basic educational goals for all pupils and then identify specific curricular objectives to fit individual pupils' needs, interests, skills, and abilities. Children tend to become disinterested and even fail when learning objectives are not relevant and curriculum and skills are not matched.

Table 7.1. Model of Effective Instruction

Component	Principle
Planning instruction	Decide what and how to teach. Set realistic expectations.
Managing instruction	Prepare for instruction. Use time productively. Develop positive classroom climate.
Delivering instruction	Present information. Monitor presentations. Adjust presentations.
Evaluating instruction	Monitor pupils' understanding. Monitor engaged time. Keep records of pupils' progress. Use data to make decisions.

Source: Adapted from Algozzine, Ysseldyke, & Elliot, 1997, pp. 4-5.

A systematic approach to instructional decisions based on determining pupils' learning success is also proposed in the Algozzine et al. model. The model is based on the need for the appropriate use of assessment data as a tool to determine *how* (instructional delivery) and *what* (content) pupils are taught. Using data in such a manner is not a traditional approach. Fielding, Shaughnessy, and Duckworth (1986) assert that teachers rarely use test information as a guide to improving instruction. Rather, the primary purpose for tests is to serve as a basis for grading. Cotton (1995) notes that effective teachers use assessment results to evaluate children, diagnose instruction, evaluate methods, and determine whether classroom conditions support pupils' learning. Algozzine and Ysseldyke (1981, 1982, 1986) and Ysseldyke, Algozzine, and Mitchell (1982) have challenged the traditional use of assessment and intervention practices as they relate to program planning. To be able to make effective instructional decisions, data that reflect direct measurement of pupils' progress are the most useful.

Algozzine et al. believe it is important to implement adaptations based on learning needs as the pupil is involved in instructional activities. Others, such as Friend and Bursuck (1996), believe it is most beneficial to preplan adaptations before instruction so that the teacher has options for change available while the child is involved in instructional activities. Teachers need a variety of adaptations to curriculum for children. In effective instruction, teachers monitor and adjust plans during instruction.

On closer examination of the model in Table 7.1, it becomes clear that Algozzine et al. suggest that adaptations or adjustments occur based on pupils' responses to the presentation of materials. Other authors suggest that to meet individual learners' needs relating to curricular goals and objectives, examining adaptations before implementation may provide more opportunities for success and ultimately more motivation to learn (Deschenes, Ebeling, & Sprague, 1994; Friend & Bursuck, 1996; Udvari-Solner, 1998). The question exists as to what information will be reviewed to suggest when changes are necessary. Preplanned adaptations can be determined based on teachers' previous reports of pupils' progress; preassessment data; formal assessments; interviews with children, parents, and educators; and direct observations in the classroom. Nevertheless, both model types focus on the importance of adaptations to aid children's learning of the selected outcomes.

The next section addresses methodologies for adapting curriculum and instruction, assuming that a systematic process is necessary for developing, designing, and delivering instruction.

ADAPTING CURRICULUM

The belief that all children can learn the same outcomes while being instructed using one set of instructional strategies is of doubtful utility. Rather, that belief has challenged educators to examine the design of curriculum to ensure meaningful and active pupil participation (Gartner & Lipsky, 1989; Reynolds, Wang, & Walberg, 1987; Stainback & Stainback, 1996). In education's recent past, a systematic approach to effective instruction has developed that calls for the need to examine *what* and *how* we teach. These two concepts, what and how, are the first steps in determining curricular goals for children. And if children's needs, interests, and abilities will not be addressed using these concepts, adaptations to the instructional processes are necessary.

Before we proceed, three terms must be clarified. Although the words *adaptations*, *modifications*, and *accommodations* are sometimes used interchangeably, the following definitions will be used in this chapter:

1. *Adaptations:* Changes made to the environment, curriculum, instruction, and/or assessment practices that are intended to ensure greater learning for the pupil. Adaptations are based on pupils' strengths and needs and vary in intensity and degree. Adaptations include accommodations and modifications.
2. *Accommodations*: Changes in presentation format, response format, timing, environment, and/or scheduling—changes in implementation of instruction and assessment. These changes alter level, content, or performance criteria, but they provide pupils equal access to learning and an equal opportunity to demonstrate what they know.
3. *Modifications:* Changes in outcomes, that is, what the pupil is expected to learn and/or demonstrate. Instructional and assessment planning can be modified to provide opportunities for children to participate meaningfully and productively in learning experiences and environments. They include changes in instructional level, content, and performance criteria.

Adaptations involve changes intended to aid participation and success for the learner. They may be modifications that change what the student is learning (content) or the performance criteria (outcome) required or changes in the delivery of curricular strategies and materials (accommodations).

Filbin and Kronberg (1993) discuss six general purposes for adapting curriculum and instruction when the intent is to enhance involvement and learning

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principally of children in special education programs: (a) maximizing participation and interaction, (b) enhancing respect for the pupil, (c) promoting independence, (d) building on the child's strengths, (e) increasing self-esteem, and (f) facilitating the opportunity for full involvement in all school and community settings. These purposes set the tone for expectations about adaptations in instructional activities.

TWSs provide teacher education students an opportunity to incorporate the concepts of effective instruction; examine the individual needs, interests, and abilities of their pupils; and design curriculum with common goals for all children. Based on these concepts, adaptations to the curriculum can be designed before implementation of instruction through varying delivery of instruction, monitoring performance and adjusting delivery during instruction, and providing options for the demonstration of outcomes.

Several models for adaptations have been developed that include common themes (e.g., Friend & Bursuck, 1996; Giangreco, Cloninger, & Iverson, 1993; Udvari-Solner, 1992). These models assume that when a pupil has demonstrated low performance, the achievement level is related to some interaction between the child and the instructional environment. The models focus on examination of the environment, curriculum, pupils' strengths, and performance outcomes.

An example for adaptation designed by Udvari-Solner (1992) includes a six-component decision-making model for guiding decisions about adaptations. This model provides opportunities for adaptations before instruction, during instruction, and during assessment of outcomes. The components and their corresponding examples address changes in the following:

1. Structure of instruction—providing partner learning, cooperative groups, games, community-based and experiential lessons.
2. Demands of task—adjusting performance standards, time for completion, complexity of instructional setting.
3. Criteria for success—developing personalized or criterion-referenced evaluation.
4. Elements of the learning environment—varying demands associated with the environment, physical skills, location, socialization.
5. The way the task is done—varying in size, format, additional or different materials, technology.
6. Support structure—providing for peer partners, teacher assistants, guidance for the classroom teacher.
7. Alternative activities to foster participation—arranging for community-based learning, encouraging pupils to assist other children with their group activities.

These components enable the educator to examine a series of instructional components that build on pupils' needs, interests, and abilities during the design of the instructional plan. The components provide a framework for making decisions about what to adapt for each learner to be successful.

When instructing preservice teachers, such models can be presented in cooperative learning groups. Sample lessons (or lessons developed by the preservice teacher) can be examined to determine whether the lesson incorporates components of effective instruction and to identify possible adaptations that were (or should have been) implemented. Students can be provided cues to help analyze lessons by using the grid in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2. Adaptation Planning Grid

Instructional plan for most learners	**Plan for adaptations**					
Goals/objectives	Goals/ evaluation system	Instructional environment	Lesson format	Instructional delivery	Materials	Personal assistance
Review Activity Materials Time frame						

Source: Adapted from Udvari-Solner, 1994, p. 75.

Another model, developed by Deschenes et al. (1994), provides a conceptual frame for adapting curriculum and instruction to enhance teachers' skills and to increase options for adaptation across the curriculum. The model was developed by teachers at the elementary, middle, and high school levels and contains six elements. The process of adapting curriculum and instruction

1. Should eventually occur for all children
2. Is not new to the history of classroom instruction
3. Often can be managed by collaborating with other professionals
4. Begins with a review of the outcomes expected for each child
5. Is designed to impact learning gains for each child
6. Is dependent on the selection of appropriate instructional strategies.

Based on these six elements, Deschenes et al. identify nine types of adaptations for curriculum and instruction:

1. Size of the task
2. Time allotted for learning, completion, or testing
3. Level of support
4. Input of information (instructional delivery)
5. Difficulty of the skill, problem, or rules
6. Output (how children can demonstrate performance)
7. Participation

8. Alternate goals using the same materials
9. Substitute curriculum to meet individual goals

The adaptation process begins with the selection of the subject, lesson, curricular goal, and/or instructional plan for the group. The next step is to identify the learners who will need adaptations to the curriculum or instructional plan. Information collected by the student when completing the context analysis and from preinstructional assessment data is the primary data sourc in making this judgment. Based on the curricular goal and instructional plan, educators can use one or more of the nine types as a guide to identify which adaptations will be the most appropriate for a child's needs. In this model, educators examine pupils' needs, interests, and abilities compared with the plan for the delivery of instruction (input) as an indication of the need for adaptations. The model can also be used as educators monitor and adjust material during instruction. The central advantage in teacher preparation is that the model provides ideas to candidates to help ensure success for the child as the least intrusive adaptation is employed as the first option, moving toward more intrusive adaptations only as needed. For example, adaptation of instructional delivery to include cooperative groups would be less intrusive than choosing alternate curricular goals for a pupil. The more the adaptation allows the child to participate with the other children working toward the same goals with a similar instructional task, the less intrusive the adaptation is.

ADAPTATION IN TWSs–EXAMPLES

> Teachers who successfully include students with very diverse learning needs recommend taking a multifaceted view of curriculum design. Rather than thinking about the curriculum as a predetermined set of facts and knowledge that the entire class must master, it should be considered a dynamic, ever changing body of information that provides many learning options for every student. (Udvari-Solner, 1998, p. 3)

As we prepare preservice and inservice teachers for the task of designing and implementing curriculum, the focus on instructional design as a process for meeting individual pupils' needs, interests, and abilities will be far-reaching. It is the task of teacher educators to provide activities that enhance preservice teachers' capabilities in technical repertoire, reflection, application, and collaboration (Cotton, 1995).

The following examples portray how preservice teachers are taught to plan adaptive strategies at Western Oregon University and some accommodations preservice teachers devised for their pupils.

Teaching Preservice Special Educators How to Adapt Instruction

In Western's education courses, prospective special education teachers are taught the previously described models and processes of adapting curriculum and instruction. Lessons are designed that provide students with case studies of children with varying abilities and settings where instructional content also varies. The students are placed into collaborative teams and are taught a decision-making process to identify curricular goals and objectives (sometimes translated from an individualized education program or 504 Plan) and to select methods to teach the necessary skills for each child. The curricular goals and objectives are directly related to Oregon's content standards and benchmarks. Students use the Deschenes et al. model to facilitate discussions about selecting adaptations for their case study. In other words, the students are helped to learn how to plan for expected or even potential adaptations.

Another instructional strategy involves collaboration between the preservice teachers and cooperating teachers (practicum or student teaching site) to develop adaptations for a lesson taught. The purpose is to enhance the learning and performance of children who are unlikely to be successful in the present lesson structure. This activity tends to be enlightening for the cooperating teachers as well, because they gain information about adaptive methods. Before the collaboration assignment, the preservice teachers are provided information in their college courses about different adaptive approaches. The students are involved in activities to determine adaptations that may be used based on varying the delivery and content of instruction.

Adaptation options are shown in Figures 7.1 to 7.5. The structure for the figures comes from the work of Deschenes et al. (1994), but the specifics under the headings were devised by this author. Though the suggested options were originally designed for use by special education teachers, almost all are appropriate for consideration by general educators. As students develop TWSs, they will likely find information in Figures 7.1 to 7.5 helpful as they consider how to go about designing adaptations before and during instruction.

Examples of Adaptations Found in TWSs

The excerpt in Table 7.3 is an example of adaptations designed by a student teacher for a TWS. The adaptations were developed for a child with a learning disability who was working with his classmates on writing skills in the general education curriculum. Table 7.3 includes three objectives for the whole class for the unit. The left column demonstrates the objectives for the majority of learners in the classroom, the right column the adapted objective for each original objective. For example, the first objective for the class calls for the pupils to provide a writing sample, scoring 3 or better on a scoring guide. The target learner, however, was expected to score 3 or better *after assistance* with previous drafts of the story.

Figure 7.1. Options in Adapting Classroom Instruction

- Preteach/reteach skills.
- Allow children to work collaboratively.
- Present information through a multisensory approach.
- Write key points on the board.
- Use exemplars of children's work from previous groups.
- Organize handouts so they are clear and uncluttered.
- Provide options for demonstration of knowledge.
- Provide study guides with key vocabulary and concepts.
- Allow extra time in class or out.
- Rearrange classroom environment, i.e., pupil in front, study booth, paired.

Figure 7.2. Options in Adapting Reading Assignments

- Use books on tape.
- Pair children.
- Encourage extra practice at home.
- Provide key words or phrases to look for.
- Teach a prereading strategy such as SQR3.
- Teach children to read questions first, then read the text.

Figure 7.3. Options in Adapting Written Assignments

- Reduce length of assignment.
- Allow more time for completion.
- Use note takers (carbon or photocopy notes).
- Provide credit for partial completion.
- Simplify directions.
- Allow dictation of responses.
- Pair children.

Figure 7.4. Options in Adapting Homework Assignments

- Communicate homework in a written form (notebook, calendar).
- Use a homework hot line.
- Reduce homework assignments.
- Allow work to be typed by child or dictated to others.
- Provide integrated assignments (with other subjects).
- Preteach homework skill.

Figure 7.5. Options in Adapting Tests, Quizzes, and Grades

- Allow pupils to retake tests for improved grade.
- Reduce the number of items.
- Allow pupils to do projects to demonstrate skills.
- Provide study guide.
- Create a modified grading scale, e.g., providing partial credit for using the correct process.
- Provide information on report card indicating adaptations.

Table 7.3. Examples of Adaptations in Unit Objectives

Objectives for most learners	Objectives for target learner
The students will write a fairy tale, receiving a score of 3 or better as measured by the State Scoring Guide for written language.	The child will write a fairy tale, obtaining a score of 3 or better on the State Scoring Guide for written language *on a final draft*
Given a list of new words, the students will correctly spell at least 80% of the words.	Given a list of new words *selected for him,* the child will correctly spell at least 80% of those words.
The students will list at least 10 of the 12 steps to make a book.	The child will *select* at least 10 of the 12 steps to make a book.

Other possible adaptations for sets of lessons similar to those in the table might include the following:

- Using a computer for story writing
- Using a directed instruction approach with clear directions and models for the desired behavior
- Breaking the assignment into small steps and teaching them in sequential order
- Using a reinforcement point system for following previously determined rules for behavior
- Using self-monitoring for behavior (on task, on time, task completion, accuracy)
- Using a planning chart depicting beginning/middle/end of story
- Using the child's spelling errors as the source of the spelling list

The following example, from a student's TWS, provides a set of two adaptations incorporated into a high school science program serving children with a variety of learning needs. The curricular outcome for all the pupils is unchanged. Many options were considered, however, in deciding whether to adapt and modify lessons by reexamining goals, delivery, or assessment.

> *General Class Objective*
>
> When assigned chapters from the regular text for the physical science class, the pupil will (a) correctly identify vocabulary words with 80% or greater accuracy, (b) complete questions and answer worksheets with 80% or greater accuracy, and (c) receive a passing grade on each of the physical science chapter tests.
>
> *Adaptation Strategy*
>
> Instead of direct lecture and independent work on chapter assignments, the child will be taught a 5-step study strategy to assist in completion of the assessments. Those steps will include:
>
> 1. Complete the vocabulary pretest, then read the chapter.
> 2. Participate in introduction and classroom instruction over the chapter.
> 3. Outline main ideas from the chapter on the computer.

4. Practice with the teacher or an aide in guided completion of worksheet questions.
5. Review chapter and vocabulary, then take an oral posttest.

Material Adaptations

Many of the adaptations needed by children involve instructional materials (Schumaker & Lenz, 1999). These adaptations involve altering and mediating existing materials. One way to alter existing materials incorporates the diagnostic-prescriptive approach in individualizing textbook instruction. This approach involves selecting passages from the text and having children read and complete study guides on the passages. The information gained can be used to place pupils in one of three instructional groups. The groups listed below are ordered from most to least intrusive:

- Teacher-directed instruction
- Pupils working in small groups
- Pupils working independently (Horton, Lovitt, & Christensen, 1991)

The Quality Assignment Routine (Rademacher, Deshler, Schumaker, & Lenz, 1998) provides teachers with a format to plan, present, and evaluate the assignments given to students. This adaptation prompts the teacher to focus on the assignment's purpose and relevance to pupils, to provide options for children to choose from in completing the assignment, to examine problems pupils might encounter, and to explain to learners possible solutions to the problems. When the assignment is presented to the class, a handout is provided to assist pupils while they are preparing to complete the assignment.

Mediating existing materials is used when mere alterations are not sufficient. Adaptations such as the use of organizers and mnemonic strategies reduce barriers the materials might create for children. For example, "concept organizers" (Bulgren, Schumaker, & Lenz, 1999) are graphics used to introduce and teach the content. They contain information that guides children in understanding the context of the lesson and structure of the information, establishes relationships important for understanding, and provides critical questions to answer and/or complete assignments. Concept organizers incorporate graphics to teach critical ideas by focusing on enhancing understanding of characteristics and relationships.

Mnemonic adaptations facilitate learning unfamiliar information (vocabulary words, names of individuals, places) and provide a process for recalling the information. Mastropieri and Scruggs (1991) have developed adaptations using mnemonics through changing unfamiliar words into keywords (e.g., Cohan to cone), making an interactive picture of the word, and teaching the students the mnemonic through practice. Another strategy is the use of pegwords (rhyming words for numbers) that can then be developed into a picture that uses the rhyming word for the number (e.g. sticks for six). Another type of mnemonic is using the first letter of a word to make a sentence. For instance, to remember notes on the treble clef, children are taught that the note names for the spaces spell the word FACE and the note names for the lines (EGBDF) become a sentence, "Every Good Boy Does Fine."

Many simple adaptations are also useful in assisting pupils who have difficulty completing work, organizing assignments, comprehending printed matter, and mastering writing processes. Adaptations might include extending the amount of time for completing an assignment or reducing the amount of work, providing a time line or task analysis of work to be completed by a certain time, using partners for rereading directions, listening to books on tape, orally providing directions, and using technology (spell check, grammar check, outlining software) for assistance in writing tasks.

Adaptations are an integral component of effective instruction. Providing access to materials in a variety of formats and incorporating instructional strategies that give the learner options for mastering and demonstrating understanding of the concepts are examples of adaptations in instruction. Continually monitoring and adjusting curriculum delivery and performance demonstrations will assist children in overcoming barriers to learning and demonstrating outcomes.

MEASURES OF ADAPTATION SKILLS

In Western Oregon's assessment system, there are no measures designed to exclusively rate students' abilities to develop plans or to implement instruction when the purpose is to accommodate pupils' needs. There are, however, indicators pointed to adaptations embedded in the measures of planning, implementation, and assessment. And there are measures that ask supervisors to rate students' adaptive skills during formative and summative assessment.

Formative Measures for Accommodation

In Western's measures, assessing planning skills for both instruction and assessment are subsections or indicators that call for ratings of accommodation skills. Table 7.4 shows a portion of the rating scale from Table 6.6 that calls for an assessment of the prospective teacher's ability to develop TWS plans. Supervisors are to review students' TWS plans to determine, among other assessments, how effective they were in preparing adaptations.

Table 7.4. Formative Rating of Accommodations for Pupils in TWS Plans

Written plans provide evidence that:	No (0)	Yes (1)
Unit lesson plans have been adapted for exceptional learners and for pupils with varying cultural, social, and linguistic backgrounds.	No adaptations have been made for pupils with varying needs. (0)	Appropriate adaptations have been made for pupils with varying needs. (1)
Summary rating: (very weak plans) 1 2 3 4 5 6 (very strong plans)		

Another measure designed to rate students' skills in developing their own assessments also includes a component on providing accommodations. That measure, which had originally been designed to rate the employment of a variety of assessments in students' measures, included an element asking supervisors to assess the quality of the adaptations made. The assumption underlying Table 7.5 is that variability in assessment benefits pupils as they have more paths available, allowing them to display the diversity of their knowledge or skill.

Table 7.5. Formative Rating of Variability in Student's Assessment Strategies to Account for Pupils' Diversity

Indicators	Rating
No variation/diversity in assessment.	1
Some variety in assessment strategies that will likely provide the opportunity for some pupils to demonstrate what they know and can do.	2
Good variety in assessment strategies that will likely provide the opportunity for most pupils to demonstrate what they know and can do.	3

Western faculty are encouraged to use the rating scale in Table 7.5 as a supplement to their instruction of prospective teachers when discussing accommodations for pupils. These very detailed rating scales, though too cumbersome to use in evaluating a term's worth of student TWSs, have been found to be very effective as instructional supports for Western's faculty.

Summative Measures for Accommodation

At Western, two sets of measures are used as final, summative assessments of the student's TWS. One assesses implementation (teaching) activities, the other the student's plans for his or her TWS. The first is a set of generic measures Western's three teacher education programs have adapted to fit their specific needs in assessing the implementation (or teaching) of a TWS unit. Two indicators of skill in providing accommodations are part of a much larger assessment of the student's teaching activities. The indicators shown in Figure 7.6 ask supervisors to rate the student's adaptations made in the instructional and the assessment activities.

The second set of measures, shown in Table 7.6, comprises two indicators to rate summatively the student's performance in devising strategies for accommodating pupils' needs. (These two indicators are only part of the summative rating form; the complete form was discussed in chapter 3.) As used by Western faculty, the two indicators often cannot be completed without reading the student's rationale statement, which typically includes a discussion of the decisions made regarding, in this case, adaptations made. In some cases, it may also be necessary to review other lines of evidence, such as implementation ratings, setting descriptions, or descriptions of assessment analyses, to enable supervi-

Figure 7.6. Summative Rating of Accommodations Made During TWS Implementation

For each subcategory, use the following scale to complete the summary ratings:

1 = No proficiency evident
2 = Beginning proficiency evident
3 = Nearing proficiency evident
4 = Acceptable proficiency evident
5 = Good proficiency evident
6 = Outstanding proficiency evident

___ 1f. Adapt unit plans for exceptional learners and for pupils with varying cultural, social, and linguistic backgrounds.

___ 4c. Evaluate pupils' progress in learning and refine plans for instruction or establish alternate goals or environments *or* make appropriate referrals when a child's progress in learning is less than desired.

Table 7.6. Summative Rating of Accommodations Made in TWS Plans

Dimension	1 beginning	2 emerging	3 developing	4 maturing	5 strong	6 exemplary
Unit goals and objectives	Unit goals and objectives are stated vaguely, not developmentally appropriate, not aligned with state or district content standards, and not appropriate for pupils' current performance levels and would not be clear to other teachers	<—————————————>				Unit goals and objectives are clearly stated, developmentally appropriate, consistent with state and district content standards, and appropriate for pupils' current performance levels and would be understandable to other teachers.
Plans and materials	Instructional activities are not aligned with unit goals and are not consistent with research on how pupils learn, and activities and materials do not challenge or accommodate all pupils.	<—————————————>				Instructional activities are aligned with unit goals and are consistent with research on how pupils learn, and instructional activities and materials challenge (directly or through adaptations or accommodations) all pupils.

sors to make an informed judgment of the student's skills in adjusting to pupils' needs.

SUMMARY

The goals of this chapter were to examine assumptions behind adapting curriculum and instruction and identify ways to teach preservice teachers to apply adaptations to lessons in TWSs. Objectives for this chapter focused on designing strategies to use when adapting curriculum and instruction before implementing a TWS, aligning those adaptations to outcomes and individual pupils' needs, and using evaluation to determine further adaptations and ensure that each child has a genuine opportunity to make progress toward the outcomes.

In addition, formative and summative measures were provided to help teacher education faculty provide practice and feedback to their students. Assessment devices were discussed that could be used to rate final performance in developing adaptations in a TWS.

Incorporating the concepts of effective teaching and application of one or more of the models for adapting curriculum and instruction will enhance the skills of the preservice teacher and the performance of the children taught.

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Chapter 8

Instructional Strategies in a Teacher Work Sample

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Goals for Teacher Educators

After reading this chapter, teacher educators will be able to

- Understand the need for teachers to be able to choose from a repertoire of teaching strategies as they develop a TWS.
- Know the instructional strategies most often associated with TWSs.
- Be aware of several techniques for helping students select TWS teaching strategies.
- Assess students' selection of TWS teaching strategies for both planning and implementation.

Objectives for Teacher Education Students

After reading this chapter, teacher educators will be able to help their students select and implement the steps necessary to aid children in learning:

Objectives	**Sources of measures**
1. "Internalize" goals.	Table 8.2
2. Provide examples of pupils' performance sought.	Table 8.2
3. Employ a variety of instructional strategies and materials to accommodate a variety of pupils' learning styles.	Table 8.2
4. Provide practice and feedback aligned with unit outcomes to foster increased self-confidence in children as learners.	Table 8.2
5. Implement the instructional unit in a manner that is developmentally and contextually appropriate so pupils find it engaging, personally meaningful, and clearly connected to outcomes.	Table 8.2

For most teacher education students, the most enjoyable part in the construction of a teacher work sample (TWS) is the selection and development of the teaching activities to be employed. Before a teacher work sample methodology (TWSM) existed, many viewed selecting instructional activities as a time when students were encouraged to be creative—to develop activities that were unusual, extravagant, or even outlandish. Prospective teachers could bring wanted attention to themselves by providing their pupils with imaginative instructional experiences. Often those activities were dramatic—but too often unconnected to any outcomes the community viewed as important. Even if the activity was somehow connected to a goal, the student was often oblivious to that alignment. Though some of the activities were undoubtedly memorable for the student's supervisors and pupils, it was questionable whether the children attained any important learning outcomes. Instead of developing illuminating activities, students provided experiences that were often exciting and entertaining but too often like carnival activities. The activity was the point—not the outcome to be achieved.

With the advent of reforms such as TWSM, teacher education students were asked to be analytical (as well as creative) in selecting the ways instruction would occur. Teaching strategies were to focus on empowering children to demonstrate their acquisition of new knowledge and skills. In addition, the instructional strategies chosen were to build on the children's preinstructional performance as well as the cultural environment where the school was located. Teaching strategies were to be selected that aligned with the outcomes sought, the assessment to be employed, the children's current status, and the community context—a much more intellectually rigorous task for a teacher than selecting an "exciting" instructional activity.

But the demands around selecting a teaching strategy were not yet complete after the mere selection of a set of activities. Students developing a TWS needed to also explain their choices. At Western, students are directed to provide reasons for their choices of teaching strategies in the rationale segment of their TWSs. They are to clarify how they believe their instructional choices align with the other elements of the TWS. (The rating forms used to assess those specific decisions are discussed later in this chapter.) Though not all Western faculty review their students' rationale statements before the TWS is implemented, it does seem more fair to evaluate those decisions while there is still time to revise plans rather than waiting until the unit is under way or, worse, over. At any rate, students demonstrating their professional competence by wisely selecting teaching strategies should be able to explain those decisions persuasively.

SELECTING TERMS

A plethora of descriptors for instructional activities have been used in the professional literature. Various authors have used the following words and phrases as synonyms for instructional activities:

- *Practices, patterns, methods, repertoires* (Walberg & Lai, 1998)
- *Processes* (Dunkin & Barnes, 1986)
- *Learning activities* (Tyler, 1950; Wiggins & McTighe, 1998)
- *Learning situations; instructional processes* (Clark & Peterson, 1986)
- *Teaching methods* (Wiggins & McTighe, 1998)

No single term is widely accepted for the name for the behaviors and activities teachers select when they teach. Too much variation and potential disagreement exist in the professional literature to select a word or phrase from those sources. Definitions provided by a dictionary do, however, begin to clarify other terms to describe instructional activities:

- *Model*—something [that] serves as a pattern, or standard of excellence; an archetype, copy, sample, specimen, example.
- *Tactic*—an arrangement or system; showing cleverness or skill.
- *Strategy*—the science of planning and directing; maneuvering forces into the most advantageous position. (Webster's *New Twentieth Century Dictionary*, 1979)

In the absence of consistent professional use, we have had to select a term to describe instructional activities. Using the guidance of Webster's dictionary, we chose the phrase *teaching strategy* to serve as the name for all activities (except assessment) directly related to instructing pupils. A strategy, according to the dictionary, is both a planning and implementing activity, it is a behavior or set of behaviors undertaken by someone in charge, and it implies action on the part of that person (a teacher) and those who are in the director's charge (the pupils). A teaching strategy, then, denotes planning by the teacher and implementing steps by both the teacher and the pupils. The phrase *teaching strategy* seems to describe all the actions and decisions necessary to instruct children.

What instruction is necessary to help prospective teachers develop that necessary repertoire of teaching strategies to ensure alignment with other TWS components as well as effective instruction for children? First, we discuss strategies to use in implementing a TWS. Second, we provide some suggestions about how to instruct students in selecting teaching strategies wisely. Finally, we describe measures we use at Western to assess the teaching strategies prospective teachers use to plan and implement their TWSs.

TEACHING STRATEGIES COMMON TO STANDARDS-BASED SCHOOLS AND TWSM

During instruction of teacher education students in the development of TWSs, the conversation will eventually turn to teaching strategies. A logical question that arises is What recommendations should teacher educators make to students about which teaching strategies to use to most effectively implement TWSs?

Although the question implies that certain teaching strategies would be most appropriate to help pupils acquire learning gains in a TWS, that implication is wrong. For years, it has been argued that the definition of a TWS does not direct or even suggest that specific types of learning or teaching strategies are expected (H. D. Schalock, Schalock, Myton, & Girod, 1993). Though suggestions for planning, assessment, and reflection are extensive, very little that pertains to instruction is included in most early papers on TWSM. A TWS provides a structure allowing, even encouraging, the user to employ whatever strategies seem most likely to help children learn the outcomes selected for the unit. A TWS does not, then, require one to hew to a specific philosophic view of educational methodology.

But one is more likely to observe certain teaching behaviors when watching the implementation of a TWS. Because of the underlying conceptual structure of a TWS, a teacher is more likely, for example, to use direct instruction rather than a laissez-faire approach—although one could design a TWS that includes the use of laissez-faire strategies. No one strategy is excluded from use in a TWS or, for that matter, in a standards-based school. But because of the underlying structure of a TWS (aligned, contextually dependent, curricularly integrated, clearly stated outcomes), one is more likely to find or use certain types of strategies.

The next section of this chapter focuses on clarifying the types of instructional strategies one would be most apt to find in a classroom during the instructional phase of a TWS. These strategies are, of course, similar to those likely to be found in a standards-based school. Thus, teacher educators can ensure that their charges have within their repertoire of teaching strategies at least a few they will most regularly find useful in a standards-based school.

Several writers have described teaching strategies one is likely to find in schools where curricular standards guide the instructional process (see, e.g., Harris & Carr, 1996; Pew Fall Institute, 1997; H. D. Schalock, 1993; Tell, 1998; Walberg & Lai, 1998). The following pages present the teaching strategies these authors commonly associate with standards-based schools and, concomitantly, those most likely to be used when implementing a TWS. The presentation of the strategies has been organized around the typical components of a lesson. Such a structure can, however, mislead one into the belief that the strategies being discussed should be restricted to only those parts of a lesson.

TEACHING STUDENTS HOW TO SELECT APPROPRIATE TEACHING STRATEGIES

Initiating Steps

Several authors have discussed teaching strategies they would expect to see employed by those who work in a standards-based school. They describe activities a teacher would likely take as a prerequisite step to the first lesson or include as the introductory comments to a unit. The initiating strategies include

1. Post in the classroom expectations for pupils' outcomes resulting from the unit.
    - Review or discuss standards for the outcomes as well as the criteria to be used in evaluating performance.
    - Review scoring guides to be used in assessing pupils' work.
2. Post and review examples of high-quality work previous pupils have completed for this unit or similar units, and clarify the elements that make the work noteworthy.

Clearly, the authors surveyed for this chapter anticipated that a typical opening activity would focus the children's attention on expectations and examples drawn from demonstrations of those expectations. They apparently assumed that children will benefit from a clear picture of what is expected of them and how those expectations might be manifested. Research has long supported the principle of providing learners "advance organizers"[1] (Freiberg & Driscoll, 1996; Kauchak & Eggen, 1998; Travers, 1982) or "concrete referents or experiences" (Freiberg & Driscoll, 1996).

Introducing New Content or Skills

As teachers in standards-based classrooms begin the process of instructing children about the outcomes of the unit, a set of teaching strategies is likely to be found.

1. Instruction continually focuses on the attainment of the standards.
    - As instruction begins, references and ties to the standards recur commonly.
    - The instructor continues to express support for and belief in the value of standards in general and, specifically, those guiding the unit.
    - The instructor continues to express support for and belief in the concept of accountability for pupils as well as teachers.
2. The instructor employs a variety of teaching strategies across the unit.
    - Different modes (cognitive styles) of learning and varying kinds of pupil learning tasks (group versus individual, for example) are employed.
    - Materials and strategies are adapted in both the planning and implementation to help pupils meet the standards.

Early instruction focused on a set of standards directs pupils' attention to the instructional outcomes sought; it is presented using a set of teaching strategies thought likely to be best aligned with pupils' needs and interests. Aligning strategies with outcomes, assessment, pupils' needs, and community expectations can occur only if one is able to employ several kinds of instructional strategies. A restricted repertoire of teaching methods essentially blocks a teacher's ability to align strategies with outcomes and pupils' needs—all of which is consistent with the assumption that an effective way to accommodate pupils' varying learning styles is to provide a variety of instructional strategies.

Teacher-Pupil Interaction

A teacher would likely manifest five behaviors when interacting with pupils during implementation of a TWS. None of the behaviors is specific to a standards-based school or to instruction during a TWS, but the authors cited view the strategies as common to such settings.

1. *Coaching.* With clearly stated standards and exemplars available for pupils to inspect, the teacher would more likely become an aid to children in attaining the desired outcomes. In a TWS setting, it becomes less necessary for teachers to serve as pupils' information source as they seek to achieve the outcomes. When the standards are known and clear examples are available for children's inspection, teachers are less likely to restate the content found in a chapter (though they might), to provide a lecture (though they might), or to show a

motion picture or video to the whole class (though they might). Rather, the teacher would be expected to regularly work with children individually or in small groups as the pupils decide how to acquire the skills suggested by the standards.

2. *Questioning.* Pupils will need help in thinking about how they wish to attain the standards and how they wish to demonstrate that attainment. Rather than spending time clarifying those concerns for the children, teachers working in the framework of a TWS or in standards-based schools are more likely to find themselves asking questions of the children:

- Do you understand the task?
- Do you know how to find resources to help you learn the lesson?
- Does each of you have a task?
- Do you need to see/hear/review other examples?
- How can I help you?

Teachers and pupils are much more likely to view themselves as learning colleagues in such a setting.

3. *Clear communication.* Teachers need to be as clear as possible in stating what children are to learn. Because there is no reason to exclude parents and guardians from the learning process and there are many reasons to include them, teachers will also need advice as to how they can clarify the standards for family members. Teachers who are most successful in a standards-based school or in employing a TWS are most likely to be able to explain exactly what is to be learned to pupils and their families.

4. *Collaboration.* Much has been written about the benefits of collaborative or cooperative learning. In that the TWS's standards are to be clearly stated, it is highly advantageous if pupils work together in learning to demonstrate their skills. They can provide advice, instruction, and feedback to one another. In classrooms that are too often overcrowded, the use of collaborative learning is likely to positively influence both pupils' learning gains and the ambience of the classroom. Pupils should find themselves less dependent on their teacher than they likely were before TWSs and standards-based schools.

5. *Clear Responsibilities.* With standards clearly stated, specific examples available, tasks defined, and collaboration among children anticipated, the fifth expected strategy should occur naturally. Each child's responsibility in the learning process should be clear—as should be the teacher's. Pupils should be clear about what they can expect from the teacher, just as the teacher should be confident that each child knows what he or she is to do. TWSM seems particularly helpful in developing independent work habits among children, a common district goal. In a TWS environment, children will experience the prerequisites necessary to learn academic independence.

Good teachers have used these strategies for years—long before anyone in education developed the terms *standards-based schools* or *teacher work sampling.* But those strategies could be used successfully only if instructional outcomes were clear, the teacher trusted the children to learn, and the belief was that each child could learn. As a result, it is more likely that teachers working in standards-based schools or implementing a TWS will be found to regularly employ the five strategies discussed above.

Practice and Application

One would likely find the following sets of teaching strategies or behaviors in a standards-based classroom or in a classroom where a teacher is implementing a TWS:

1. *Pupils' familiarity with standards and scoring guides.* Opportunities would be provided to ensure that pupils understand the standards they are to attain and the scoring guides to be used in assessing the demonstration of their skills. One way to accomplish pupils' understanding of the standards is to ask children to articulate the outcomes in their own words. Early in a TWS, the teacher should take instructional time to ensure that each child understands the standards thoroughly by asking the children to restate them using appropriate synonyms. Another way to ensure knowledge of the assessment strategies as well as the standards themselves is to ask pupils to review the scoring guide and explain it to the teacher, use the guide in scoring another child's demonstration, or devise a scoring guide that class members think is aligned with the outcomes.

2. *Work plans.* Two strategies are quite likely to be found when a teacher implements a TWS. Both require children to develop their own plan to guide their acquisition of the unit's outcomes. First, the teacher needs to be sure that pupils have a clear plan of attack to gain the necessary skills; to do so, they should develop for themselves or their group a clearly stated work plan. Second, sufficient time should be made available for children to attain the standards. Part of that time should be used to provide an opportunity for children to practice their new skills and to receive feedback from peers or an adult (a mentor or the teacher). If children can assess their own performance insightfully, then they are more likely to attain a high level of skill in self-evaluation—the ability to talk about how to improve and revise their own demonstration of the standards. If pupils are helped to develop clearly stated plans consistent with the time allotted for instruction and if that allotment is realistic for acquisition, practice, and feedback, then it seems very likely children will learn the outcomes of the unit.

3. *Teacher's role.* Three strategies that serve to define the teacher's role are likely to be more common in the implementation of a TWS. First, teachers will likely employ a hands-on approach in their teaching. They will give pupils all possible materials to help them understand the desired outcomes, how to achieve the outcomes, and how the outcomes will be assessed. The more instructional materials pupils have available to them, the more likely they are to learn in the

most expeditious method. Second, teachers will be disposed to using formative evaluation as part of their instruction. Providing feedback describing the degree to which the criterion has been attained or to encourage a child to seek to attain an even higher level of accomplishment are strategies that fit well with both standards-based schools and TWSM. Third, teachers will be able to bring temporary closure to the instructional process. As many standards take days to attain, the teacher will need to know how to recognize natural breaking points in work sessions, how to make such transitions efficiently, and how to help children restart their work quickly the next session. Making transitions in a TWS in many ways requires more skill for teachers than when they work in traditional, teacher-directed settings.

Implementing a TWS requires teachers to be carefully prepared for each instructional day. The teacher needs to be ready to help children better understand the outcomes they are trying to attain, to be judicious in allotting time to foster the greatest learning gains, and to make transitions at the beginning and end of each work session with the greatest efficiency. None of these strategies are restricted to TWSM, but they do seem more crucial to that instructional model.

Materials

No materials are specifically reserved for use in a TWS. But the ways materials are used may vary a bit from more traditional teaching models.

Materials should be chosen that are clearly aligned with the intent of the unit and its assessment methodologies and are likely to aid children in meeting the standards. Additionally, the materials chosen for children's use will likely be appropriate for their developmental level. Aligning instructional materials is a focal point for a teacher implementing a TWS.

The question of alignment becomes most central when deciding how to use a class text. Textbooks tend to be the central focus, both in terms of scope and sequence, of traditional, teacher-dominated instruction. The scope of the curriculum is often decided by what content is included in the text. And the order or sequence of the curriculum is often created by the authors of the text, who have probably never seen the school and most assuredly have no specific insights regarding the pupils in the candidate's classroom. In a TWS, however, because the teacher is attempting to align instruction with pupils' needs, the text and other instructional materials are used as resources rather than as central players or organizers of the curriculum.

TEACHING STUDENTS HOW TO ALIGN TEACHING STRATEGIES WITH OTHER TWS COMPONENTS

The selection of teaching strategies for a TWS is done to bring into alignment the instructional activities with the outcomes, assessment, pupils' needs, and cultural context of the setting. At Western, faculty have developed instructional experiences that are successful in helping students becoming more proficient in aligning their instructional decisions with the other components of a TWS.

Alignment With Outcomes and Assessment

1. *Readings.* Several faculty have found *Instruction: A Models Approach* (Gunter, Estes, & Schwab, 1995) helpful in describing the elements that make up various teaching strategies. The authors contend the models they discuss are aligned naturally with different types of outcomes. For example, they say that direct instruction is most useful when the teacher is trying to help children meet outcomes where basic skills, recall and recognition of basic skills and facts, or psychomotor skills are the focus (p. 76). Western students have reported they find the text very helpful in winnowing their selection process to two or three strategies that are most likely to prove successful when they implement their TWSs.

2. *Research review.* A common technique among teacher education faculty around the country with regard to teaching strategies is to review research results, primarily those developed by respected sources such as the *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (Wittrock, 1986), meta-analyses such as those by Walberg and Lai (1998), and the models book by Gunter et al. (1995). Western faculty member David Wright has provided such information for years to his prospective teachers, but there is now, he says, a more focused effort among faculty and students to connect each strategy to a specific set of outcomes.

3. *Analytic activities.* Once students have received information about how specific strategies might best align with an outcome, Sue Dauer gives them a chance to try their hand at connecting outcomes and strategies together.

> I describe a teaching scenario which I have experienced or I invite them to describe a setting in which they are teaching. I ask them to select a teaching strategy for the scenario and explain the reasons for their selection. Then their classmates and I ask questions to try to increase their awareness of other variables that might enter in to influence the effectiveness of the strategy they chose. (personal communication, 1998)

Under such an instructional format, students have the chance to test their understanding of how to align strategies and outcomes before they actually do so. It is a protected setting for the students as well as their pupils. Both the students proposing strategies and their respondent colleagues have a chance to hone their understanding of what is likely to occur. The students practice speculating about what children are likely to gain from an experience. As they discuss what those gains might be, the students begin to anticipate that learning can take many forms and be influenced in a variety of ways. Their hypotheses also indicate for the college faculty how well the students understand the expectations they are acquiring about various strategies.

Alignment With Pupils' Needs

Connecting teaching strategies to pupils' needs requires information about the children before the selection process. Those data may come from previous instructional or assessment activities the cooperating teachers recently undertook or a pretest the prospective teacher has administered. After the data are analyzed, students should have a clearer view of the current status of each child respective to the unit outcome(s). With that information in mind, students can review their repertoire of teaching strategies and select one that seems most likely to build successfully on the children's current status, as well as those deemed likely to help attain the stated outcome(s). In most cases, however, students find that more than one strategy must be employed to account for the needs of most of the children. As a consequence of the variability in needs among a group of pupils, most of Western's teacher preparation programs recommend that students' TWSs include a variety of teaching strategies.

The most significant problem around such a simple idea as aligning instruction with pupils' needs is that few researchers and educational writers have provided explicit guidance for practitioners. The knowledge base is limited for teachers to draw on in matching pupils' needs to strategies. No volume or paper meets this goal in a way similar to the Gunter et al. text addressing matching outcomes to strategies. What is needed is a definitive text laying out the relationship between types of pupils' needs and teaching strategies that are most likely to meet those needs. Without such a knowledge base, teacher educators cannot provide clear guidance as they would like. As Susan Wood has said, "Too often we turn this task over to the students to figure out." Some Western faculty, however, have tried to help students. Below are three ideas Western faculty share with their students about how to select teaching strategies that will align with pupils' needs (see also chapter 7).

1. *Group size.* Jim Long suggests his students, when selecting teaching strategies (particularly when the preinstructional information does not illuminate a pupil's needs), provide activities as often as possible for their pupils to work in small, mixed-ability groups similar to cooperative learning groups. Long's rationale is that pupils generally find such groups satisfying because those with fewer skills can get help from their more able peers, while more adept students can hone their knowledge as they explain concepts and procedures to their classmates. Long warns his students, however, that such a strategy can be employed only after pupils have acquired some information about the content of the unit and that the technique needs to be used judiciously. Such groups give the prospective teacher time to observe pupils' performance at close range.

2. *Modeling.* A secondary strategy many teachers overlook is pausing after a question long enough for pupils to have a chance to respond. Early research (Rowe, 1996) found that most teachers ask a question and pause less than a second before they begin giving the answer themselves, providing more cues, or talking about something else. Teachers appear to be an impatient lot. When

coupled with the information that some teachers respond less cordially to children from lower socioeconomic groups, to children from different racial groups, or to girls, waiting is an instructional strategy that all teachers need to consider. Christy Perry believes so strongly in ensuring that her students become more patient when they teach that she models the techniques in her classes. "When I modeled the use of wait time," she says, " I would actually go to the corner of the classroom, fold my arms, and wait for them to respond. It did not take students long to understand the power of the technique. They knew I would just wait them out."

If the target pupils are insecure, reflective, or reticent to speak in public, and the prospective teacher knows it, the commitment to provide more time for those children to respond can be very useful.

3. *Special needs.* Many students come to school with little support from home. Western professor Steve Bigaj cautions his students not to assume their pupils have had their basic needs met before they come to school. Some of the pupils may have had no breakfast, or they may have slept in a locked closet the previous night. Bigaj recommends that his students, if they suspect a pupil has been mistreated, provide some instructional time for the child to confide in them. Although Bigaj teaches prospective special educators, his message seems appropriate for general educators as well.

ASSESSMENT OF TEACHING STRATEGY DECISIONS

When it comes time in a TWS to initiate summative evaluation of pupils, a prospective teacher implementing such a unit (or one who is teaching in a standards-based school) will be inclined to focus on somewhat different assessment strategies from those of a teacher working in a traditional setting. Teachers implementing a TWS tend to use three such assessment foci.

1. *Validity.* A central expectation of a TWS is that the assessment methods and materials are aligned with the unit's outcomes. Though in traditional instruction it is hoped such a link occurs, it is apparent to anyone who has ever been a pupil that such articulation is too often missing. But TWSM embraces, even demands, alignment. That expectation means there will be increased congruence between the objectives and the array of assessment materials and methods. It also means that when TWS assessment occurs, there should be greater validity in the measures, evidenced through face validity as well as curricular validity. The information gathered from pupils should have much greater utility because it can be interpreted in terms of outcomes that both the children and the parents understand. Students implementing a TWS are more likely to worry about curricular validity of their assessment processes than are other teachers.

2. *Pupil's role.* During the final assessment phase, teachers working with TWS units will likely involve themselves in at least three activities more common to this instructional model to help children play more active roles in their learn-

ing. First, teachers will spend time and thought in helping children collect evidence of their attainment of the unit's outcomes. Second, teachers will have pupils demonstrate their knowledge in a variety of ways as they collect assessment data, such as organizing and selecting times for the children to exhibit their portfolios. Third, teachers will help their pupils decide how to demonstrate their achievements in a variety of ways. They will make available time to discuss and show the use of different media and modes for demonstrations. TWSM encourages teachers to foster pupils' roles in summative evaluation that can take on new dimensions not likely seen in traditional educational settings.

3. *Instruction-based assessment.* The use of data about pupils' learning gains from the TWS summative evaluation is no longer restricted, as it typically is in more traditional settings, to filling in the grade book before assigning grades. Teachers working with TWSs will more likely use both formative and summative evaluation to inform their decisions. In the case of summative evaluation, the teacher is likely to find guidance from pupils' learning data helpful in judging whether the goals and objectives were truly appropriate, which instructional approaches were most helpful to children, and which assessment strategies were most attractive to children. The evaluative phase common to TWSM can provide an assessment-based curriculum.

Rating Teaching Strategy Decisions in TWS Plans

The assessment of a prospective teacher's decisions regarding teaching strategies should occur at three points. First, assessment can occur when students submit their TWS plans and the supervisor rates, among other components, the rationale, looking for statements explaining the selection of teaching strategies. Second, when observing students as they implement their TWSs, supervisors can judge the adequacy of the performance of the teaching strategy as well as its apparent congruence with the current needs of the children and the environment. Third, as he or she reads the reflection segment, the supervisor should ask for clarification of any changes made or rejected regarding the instructional strategies employed. The last section of this chapter briefly discusses the rating systems used at Western to judge the quality of prospective teachers' work regarding the selection and employment of teaching strategies.

Though most faculty report examining the rationale to determine whether planning decisions about teaching strategies are discussed in terms of pupils' preinstructional performance and previous experience, there is no separate measure for recording this rating. Rather, a summative rating is used that includes two scores that interact to provide an overview of the quality of the instructional strategy decision (see Table 8.1). Supervisors need to clarify for their students that they expect to find a compelling discussion of candidates' decisions about teaching strategies, because the rating form does not explicitly warn students of that expectation.

Table 8.1. Summative Rating for the TWS Rationale

Dimension	1 beginning	2 emerging	3 developing	4 maturing	5 strong	6 exemplary
Description of the setting	Discussion is superficial, with no thought given to implications of context on teaching and learning.	<----------------------------->				Discussion includes aspects of community, district, school, pupils, and classroom that can influence teaching and learning in terms of both demand and support.
Rationale for work sample	Rationale for the work sample unit is weak, not clearly stated, and not supported.	<----------------------------->				Rationale for the work sample unit is strong, clearly stated, and supported.

Rating Teaching Strategy Decisions in TWS Implementation

Judgments as to the adequacy of a selected teaching strategy need to be made regularly as students implement their TWSs. "In-flight decisions" can have a powerful influence on children's learning and need to be assessed as often as is feasible. Table 8.2 shows an assessment used during student teaching to rate the Western candidate's choice of teaching strategies and their implementation.

Rating Teaching Strategy Decisions Following TWS Implementation

After students have finished implementing the TWS unit, they prepare two essays to explain, among other decisions, why teaching strategies were or were not changed during the instructional phase. First, they write an essay interpreting the results of the pupil learning data. Second, they prepare an essay discussing their interpretation of the degree of success attributed to the TWS in terms of pupils' and their own performance. Supervisors rate these two essays in terms of whether students discussed, among many items, the decisions reached about the chosen teaching strategies. As before, supervisors are encouraged to tell their students such an analysis is expected, because the measures do not explicitly state that expectation (see Table 8.3).

Table 8.2. Rating Teaching Strategy Decisions Made During TWS Implementation

I. Establishing a classroom climate conducive to learning

Institution supervisor		*Cooperating teacher*		
Met	Not met	Met	Not met	
☐	☐	☐	☐	a. Affirms the dignity and worth of all pupils and provides the positive support children need to be effective learners
☐	☐	☐	☐	b. Communicates classroom rules and behavioral expectations that provide a safe and orderly environment for learning, are appropriate to pupils' level of development, and are consistent with laws governing pupils' rights and responsibilities
☐	☐	☐	☐	c. Applies principles of gender equity and racial justice to all pupils and applies principles of least restrictive environment for children with disabilities
☐	☐	☐	☐	d. Models appropriate social behavior and provides meaningful reinforcement when it occurs
☐	☐	☐	☐	e. Takes into account the influence on motivation and behavior of the physical, social, and emotional climate of pupils' homes and the community
☐	☐	☐	☐	f. Monitors pupils' conduct and takes appropriate action when they misbehave
☐	☐	☐	☐	g. Interacts thoughtfully and courteously with children and their parents and resolves conflicts in a professional manner, respecting the cultural context of the community
☐	☐	☐	☐	h. Uses classroom time efficiently to provide maximum opportunity for learning
☐	☐	☐	☐	i. Manages instructional transitions decisively and without loss of instructional time
☐	☐	☐	☐	j. Arranges and sets up instructional materials and equipment before class to facilitate their effective and efficient use during lessons
☐	☐	☐	☐	k. Coordinates the use of instructional assistants, parent volunteers, pupil assistants, and other support personnel to achieve instructional objectives if these resources are available

II. Engaging pupils in planned learning activities

Institution supervisor		*Cooperating teacher*		
Met	Not met	Met	Not met	
☐	☐	☐	☐	a. Applies instructional structures appropriate for the developmental level of pupils, including groups and individual instruction
☐	☐	☐	☐	b. Communicates learning outcomes to be achieved and focuses pupils' interest on tasks to be accomplished
☐	☐	☐	☐	c. Implements instructional plans that employ knowledge of subject matter and basic skills
☐	☐	☐	☐	d. Uses a variety of research-based educational practices that reflect how children learn, are sensitive to individual differences and diverse cultures, and encourage pupils' participation
☐	☐	☐	☐	e. Emphasizes instructional techniques that promote critical thinking and problem solving and encourage divergent as well as convergent thinking
☐	☐	☐	☐	f. Monitors pupils' engagement in learning activities and the progress they are making to determine whether the pace or content of instruction needs to be modified to ensure that all pupils accomplish lesson and unit objectives.

Table 8.3. Rating of Teaching Strategy Decisions After the TWS Unit Is Taught

Dimension	1 beginning	2 emerging	3 developing	4 maturing	5 strong	6 exemplary
Evaluative essay	The essay makes no mention of the effects of the teaching/learning context on learning results, does not blend formal and informal assessment results, provides conclusions that are inconsistent with the results reported, fails to tie assessment results to the stated goals of the unit, and does not summarize results.	<----------------------------------->				The essay clarifies the effects of the teaching/learning context on learning results, blends formal and informal assessments for a fuller picture of learning, provides conclusions that are consistent with the results reported, ties assessment results to the stated goals of the unit, and provides a useful summary of learning.
Reflective essay	The essay is not reflective, but instead describes events and makes no attempt to provide reasons or justification for them. It is mostly concerned with the efficiency and effectiveness of means to achieve ends but not the ends themselves.	<----------------------------------->				The essay steps back from events or actions, is analytical and/or integrative of factors, findings, and perspectives, and may recognize inconsistencies. It goes beyond technical and practical emphasis on ends and means to also bring up moral and ethical criteria and make judgments about whether practice is equitable, just, and respectful of others.

SUMMARY

Several ideas have been presented in this chapter:

- A rationale for use of the term *teaching strategies*
- The argument that TWSs should employ several teaching strategies to account for the differences in pupils' learning needs as well as the requirements of varying unit outcomes
- An analysis of teaching strategies commonly associated with TWSs and standards-based schools by reviewing several professional and scholarly sources
- Suggestions about successful teaching strategies for instructing prospective teacher educators about ways to decide on teaching strategies
- Assessment ratings for students' decisions about teaching strategies before, during, and following implementation of a TWS unit

As Mark Girod has pointed out, teacher education students also need to become aware of the ripple effect caused by changing teaching strategies. As a teacher moves, for example, from a teacher-directed to a cooperative strategy, many other elements in the learning environment also change. Noise increases, interclass competition may increase or decrease, and the teacher's control of what is learned is likely to diminish. As prospective teachers analyze the influence of their teaching strategies, they should notice those decisions have far-reaching impacts.

NOTE

1. "Ausubel [. . .], who developed this strategy for beginning a lesson, identified two types of advanced organizers. One of [them] he called the ***expository organizer***, which provides students with an overview of the subject much like the opening strategies common to TWS implementation. Expository organizers are appropriate for lessons or classes when you think the information is new to the students" (Freiberg & Driscoll, 1996, p. 76). The other strategy, whose definition seems self-evident, Ausubel called a ***comparative organizer*** (1968).

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Chapter 9

Teaching the Necessary Assessment Concepts and Skills for a Teacher Work Sample

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Goals for Teacher Educators

After reading this chapter, teacher educators will be able to

- Help prospective teachers employ an array of strategies to assess pupils' performance.
- Show prospective teachers how to assemble and interpret pupils' assessment information and develop plans to provide feedback to children about their learning.
- Identify several field performance measures used to evaluate prospective teachers' assessment skills.

Objectives for Teacher Education Students

After reading this chapter, teacher educators will be able to help their students select processes and materials to enable determining, displaying, interpreting, and discussing with others pupil learning gains in terms of the enabling and final unit objectives. Specific objectives include the following:

Objectives	**Sources of measures**
1. Develop and administer pre- and postassessments for enabling knowledge and skills that are valid, reliable, aligned, easily understood by children, feasible, diverse, and developmentally appropriate.	Tables 9.1, 9.2, 9.4, 9.5, 9.8, 9.9
2. Gather data, including those acquired throughout the unit, to describe pupils' unit performance, particularly in terms of enabling and final unit outcomes.	Tables 9.18, 9.19; Figure 9.4
3. Involve children in selecting criteria for assessment, gathering evidence to be used in describing performance, and communicating a description of the achievement to others.	Table 9.19
4. Provide feedback to pupils and parents regarding progress in achieving unit outcomes.	Table 9.19
5. Summarize data for inclusion in the reflective piece.	Tables 9.15, 9.16

For decades, teachers took courses in measurement and evaluation that seemed, and often were, unconnected to the rest of their professional curriculum. Most of the readers of this handbook, if they even had a college or university course in measurement, likely took that course apart from, departmentally and conceptually, their education program. The connections among assessment, instruction, and planning were discussed not as part of a professional package but as separate, discrete skills teachers were to attain. And, for readers who have earned a doctorate, it would not be unusual to have maintained one's assessment naivete by never having enrolled in a measurement and evaluation class. In other words, many of us now involved in teacher preparation came out of professional preparation programs where measurement and evaluation were not highly valued academic ventures or thought to be particularly utilitarian as professional activities. Evidence of this apparent devaluation can be seen in the disconnect and inadequacies of assessment procedures and instruments used to assess prospective teachers' knowledge and skill in assessment during and after student teaching or internship (Koziol, Minnick, & Sherman, 1996).

Assessment has become much more highly valued. During the 1980s and 1990s, assessment became recognized as a central part of the education process. Almost every new educational reform called for heightened accountability on the part of one or more of the educational players (pupils, parents, teachers, districts, states). Accountability was to be fostered as assessment activities were devised to demonstrate some type of gain in learning. As a result of such reforms, expectations for teachers have changed. New teachers, if they are to be successful in the current climate, must be better prepared in assessment skills than those (such as ourselves) who are currently involved in their professional instruction.

Stiggins (1991, 1994), for example, argues for teachers' demonstration of "assessment literacy," especially in the current context of standards-based education and school reform. Assessment literacy, as defined by Stiggins (1994), encompasses a variety of assessment activities that start with clear purposes, focus on achievement targets, are selected based on the intended use and type of information sought, sample pupils' achievement adequately, and avoid bias and distortion. The need for assessment literacy and the necessity for ensuring high-quality assessment are inextricably intertwined with teacher work sample (TWS) efforts. Teachers must be knowledgeable about the need and the means for attaining high-quality assessment (Stiggins, 1995).

> Assessment-literate educators—be they teachers, principals, curriculum directors, or superintendents—come to any assessment knowing what they are assessing, why they are doing so, how best to assess the achievement of interest, how to generate sound samples of performance, what can go wrong, and how to prevent those problems before they occur. (Stiggins, 1995, p. 240)

The need for prospective teachers to become craftsmen in assessment can be demonstrated in these two vignettes. Imagine how strange and even dangerous the world would be if these two circumstances were real:

- You are quite sick and visit your family physician. In an attempt to better diagnose your illness, the doctor says, "Wait a moment. I need to go in the back room and develop something to measure body temperature."
- Your car doesn't steer well. You visit your neighborhood mechanic. In an attempt to better diagnose your vehicle's problem, the mechanic says, "Wait a moment. I need to go in the back room and develop something to measure tire pressure."

In both cases, you would undoubtedly leave. Those two vocations have a plethora of valid and reliable measures for the variables under consideration. But education lacks such measures. Given the vast array of potential outcomes that teachers might wish to measure, their assessment skills must be very broad. Unlike most other professionals, teachers must be assessment craftsmen. They do need to "go in the back room" and develop something to measure, for example, reading comprehension of a text chapter.

In considering the changing vision of assessment in the context of school reform, it is apparent that teachers must become more adept at assessing pupils' performance, and it is also apparent that our views of assessment must, at the very least, broaden if we are to capture the wide range of pupils' behavior that represents learning.

This chapter is structured around two components. It first stresses the assessment *concepts* that prospective teachers need to learn to understand teacher work sample methodology (TWSM): alignment, assessing an array of outcomes, authentic/alternative assessment, and indices of TWS assessment quality. The second component focuses on the *skills* students must develop to be able to construct a high-quality TWS: reporting and interpreting skills such as displaying data and analyzing quartiles and clusters, keeping records, interpreting data, and describing the context. The chapter focuses on recommendations for teaching these concepts and skills to prospective teachers as they prepare their first TWS.

In addition, where it is appropriate, we discuss several of the TWS measures described in chapter 2. After suggesting possible teaching strategies for each TWS assessment concept or skill, we connect those ideas to Western's field measures of students' assessment abilities. We hope readers will see TWS measures as serving as instructional aids as well as providing both formative and summative assessment of functions.

The intent here is to explain how one might provide instruction for these concepts and skills to enable students to develop a TWS. It is not to discuss how to teach specific assessment skills.

TWS ASSESSMENT CONCEPTS

Alignment

One of the most important assessment concepts associated with teacher work samples is *alignment*. The concept calls for the outcome (goals and objectives) of a unit, the procedures (instructional strategies and materials) of a unit, the preinstructional status (pretest behaviors) of pupils' performance, and the measurement (assessment) of pupils' progress to be allied with one another. The purpose of carefully aligning outcomes, instruction, and assessment with pupils' performance is to ensure that the instructional unit is cohesive, that pupils are actually taught skills they are expected to master, and that pupils are assessed in a way that is consistent with how they were taught. In such a curricular system, assessment should provide children the opportunity to validly demonstrate what they have learned and can do.

It is also a matter of fairness. Pupils are not passive participants in the educational process. They have a vested interest in the educational outcomes established and often adapt their behavior so as to increase the likelihood of a favorable outcome (Taylor & Nolen, 1996). In terms of teaching and learning, this suggests that what is assessed should be what is taught. Classroom teachers also have a vested interest in the outcomes of assessment, especially in a potentially high-stakes setting such as that accompanying the evaluation of a TWS. Quite possibly, classroom teachers believe that pupils' performance is a reflection on their teaching (which is certainly the connection that the underlying principles of TWSM make). It is hoped that teachers adjust their instruction to the needs of pupils, adapt instruction for the needs of diverse pupils, and bring a wide range of evidence to bear on decision making about pupils (Airasian, 1994). Thus, as Stiggins (1995) has asserted, sound assessments should arise from and reflect appropriate achievement targets and what has actually been taught. Teaching, then, is more effective when learning outcomes, instructional plans, assessments, and contextual considerations are aligned. Alignment of planned learning outcomes and assessment is one aspect of the validity of assessments (McConney & Ayres, 1998).

A major difference exists between this description of alignment and the depictions of other writers. One component in our description—preinstructional status—is not commonly discussed as an important part of alignment. Most educational theoreticians discuss only the first three components: "*Instructional alignment* describes the extent to which stimulus conditions match among three instructional components: intended outcomes, instructional processes, and instructional assessment" (Cohen, 1984, p. 16).

Because teacher work samples portray the amount of pupils' learning that has accrued from the implementation of an instructional unit, it is crucial that the prospective teacher preassess pupils. If the unit is to build on pupils' preexisting skills and needs, we believe the TWS outcomes and accompanying assessment and instructional strategies must be aligned (and adjusted when necessary) with that status. To do otherwise runs the risk of ignoring pupils' characteristics as a central component of the alignment activity or even diluting learning as the primary focus of assessment. The following section focuses on teaching about the alignment of outcomes with assessment activities.

1. *Prerequisite knowledge regarding purposes for various assessment strategies.* Teaching prospective teachers how to align the components of their work sample is a difficult task. Alignment is an exceedingly demanding intellectual chore. Restricted to the content for this chapter, aligning assessment materials and activities to the unit's outcomes requires that prospective teachers already have a repertoire of assessment skills as well as knowledge of how those skills match with all the various outcomes they may wish to teach. For example, teacher education students need to already know which types of measures (matching, essay, multiple choice, fill-in, performance) are likely to provide the most accurate assessment of an outcome where pupils are to demonstrate, for example, that "reasoning is based on fact rather than fiction" (Oregon Department of Education, 1997, p. 21). They also need to be conversant with the skills necessary to assess pupils in terms of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains. Several texts on the market thoroughly explain the utility of different test item types and assessment techniques for different domains. Several faculty in general education at Western recommend *Classroom Assessment* (Airasian, 1997) as admirably describing the most appropriate assessment roles various measures can play. Teacher educators must help their students develop knowledge regarding the capabilities one can expect from each assessment strategy. This step is a prerequisite to the instructional strategies discussed below and is expanded on later.

Once students have the prerequisite skills of knowing the most appropriate use of each kind of measure and the general relationship between goals and objectives (see chapter 6), they are then ready to establish alignment between their desired instructional outcomes and assessment procedures. Several instructional strategies, described below, can be used to help them ensure they can make the appropriate alignment.

2. *Collaboration.* Students working toward teaching careers in early childhood education often find assessment activities difficult. Too often, prospective teachers have not seen practicing teachers use assessment strategies to gather useful information. Assessment with young children is also difficult. Young pupils, compared with older children, have a relatively limited repertoire of academic skills for responding to items such as those found on written tests (the ability to read to draw inferences, for example). Prospective teachers fall back on paper-and-pencil activities that too often do not fit the developmental levels of the children. To overcome that lack of experience and an apparently restricted range of feasible assessments, Susan Wood, a Western faculty member, regularly asks early childhood education preservice teachers to work together to help one another brainstorm assessment strategies that might match their outcomes. Small-

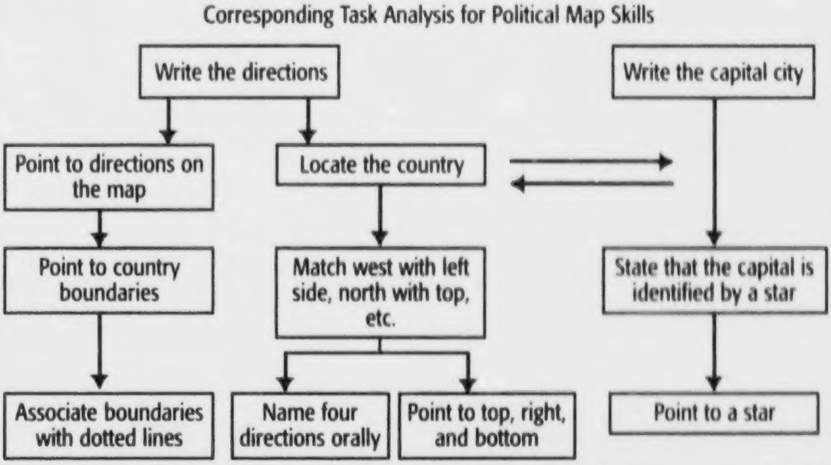
group collaborative activities undertaken with other prospective teachers from one student's intended teaching level can provide support for the student's planning and assessment preparation. Students indicate they have found such collaborative efforts helpful in expanding their vision of useful assessment strategies to use with young children. Wood notes that after the collaboration, prospective teachers seem to employ more appropriate strategies such as observations of behaviors and products, interviews, and use of videotapes. In addition, the collaborative groups have often generated scoring guides.

3. *Task analysis.* A formal instructional strategy to help students find the embedded behavioral components or en route steps leading to an outcome is to teach them how to perform task analysis. For example, students must understand that before children can interpret the meanings inherent in a population map, they must know what each symbol means. After performing a task analysis, students can develop a more thorough measurement instrument that more completely diagnoses what their pupils have learned and have yet to learn. Several assessment and curriculum texts contain sections explaining task analysis (see, e.g., Kauchak & Eggen, 1998, pp. 82-84, which includes a brief section explaining task analysis and asks the reader to practice with an example).

An example of task analysis is shown in Figure 9.1. For the two components of the objective listed, it is apparent which behaviors need to be assessed to find out which prerequisite skills have yet to be learned. If a child can not identify the capital city on a map, the skills have yet to be learned. If a child cannot identify the capital on a map, the prospective teacher could look at the task analysis to decide which skills need to be assessed. Does the child, for example,

Figure 9.1. Example of Task Analysis–Map Reading

Objective: Given a political map of Western Europe, the pupil will be able to write
- The direction each country is from others
- The capital city of each country

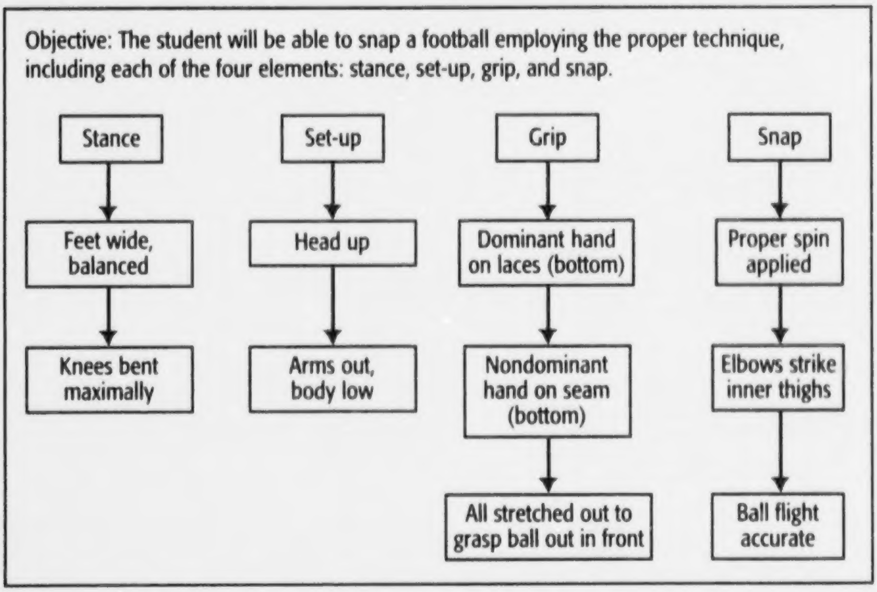

Corresponding Task Analysis for Political Map Skills
Write the directions
Write the capital city
Point to directions on the map
Locate the country
Point to country boundaries
Match west with left side, north with top, etc.
State that the capital is identified by a star
Associate boundaries with dotted lines
Name four directions orally
Point to top, right, and bottom
Point to a star

recognize the shape of a star or associate a star with representing a capital city? A thorough assessment would not just ask the child to identify the capital city but would also ask about recognizing shape and associating a star with a capital city.

Students of Gerald Girod have constructed several clever task analyses that resulted in very utilitarian assessment devices. The example in Figure 9.2 came from a physical education candidate and resulted in a performance assessment as part of a lesson in teaching college students how to snap a football. After completing a task analysis, the student designed an assessment system in which he rated the presence of each characteristic on a scale of 0 to 2 (0 = not present, 1 = present but using improper technique, 2 = present and using proper technique). The student who taught the snap was then able to provide specific feedback to each student. In class, the student employed his rating scale with 10 students in 10 minutes and provided thorough feedback to each. His classmates were much impressed and learned the rudiments of how to snap a football.

Faculty need to caution their teacher education students about the inclusion of prerequisite concepts and skills in a pretest. If the intent of the prospective teacher is to determine whether pupils have mastered the entry subordinate skills to allow them to begin instruction toward an objective or set of objectives, then a readiness assessment—not a pretest—should be employed. The purpose for a pretest is to assess whether the enabling skills identified in the objective have already been learned. Faculty need to warn students not to include the assessment of readiness skills in a pretest. If those skills have been acquired, and

Figure 9.2. Example of Task Analysis–Snapping a Football



Objective: The student will be able to snap a football employing the proper technique, including each of the four elements: stance, set-up, grip, and snap.

Stance
Feet wide, balanced
Knees bent maximally
Set-up
Head up
Arms out, body low
Grip
Dominant hand on laces (bottom)
Nondominant hand on seam (bottom)
All stretched out to grasp ball out in front
Snap
Proper spin applied
Elbows strike inner thighs
Ball flight accurate

they should have been if the TWS is appropriate for these children, then no significant learning gains can occur. Before the inception of a TWS unit, pupils should have met all the prerequisites, which means no gains could occur. Faculty need to help prospective teachers distinguish prerequisites from enablers. If students are to demonstrate the ability to bring about learning, both pre- and postinstructional assessment must measure only enablers (e.g., see Carey, 1988, for a thorough discussion of the assessment of prerequisites and enablers).

4. *Tables of specification.* A useful way to ensure the alignment between outcomes and assessment measures is to develop a table of specifications. Tables of specification provide means for determining whether each unit objective has corresponding items or observational criteria. Such a table may, for example, list on the horizontal dimension the outcomes sought in the instructional unit. The vertical dimension of the table of specifications would then list item numbers, criterion numbers, or the assessment device plus the corresponding item or criterion. By completing the table, teacher education students can determine which objectives are being adequately assessed and which ones may have even been omitted. Another use of a table of specifications is to help students determine how thorough their unit's objectives are in covering the range of outcomes in a taxonomy. For example, the first table in the box on pages 224-225 presents how each of a set of objectives was assessed by one or more items from a test. By completing such a table, students can detect whether they have overlooked assessing an objective, have included more items for an objective than they intended, or assessed one objective with only low-level items while another was assessed using only more complex assessments, such as an essay. A table of specifications is another tool for use in students' self-evaluation. In the box on pages 224-226, Jim Long describes his use of tables of specifications to help students develop a measurement system that aligns with all their objectives.

5. *Analysis of faculty tests.* The final example of examining assessment coverage of a unit's objectives takes a bit of courage. Gwenda Rice asks her students to review the recently completed class midterm exam to decide whether it fairly assesses the published goals and objectives for her course. The students review her test and attempt to match the items and criteria to the desired outcomes. Interest is very high, and students receive a great deal of corrective feedback from their peers—as does Rice. Such an activity benefits the students because they have a set of important examples upon which to employ their analytic skills. The activity also benefits the faculty instructor by providing feedback about the alignment of the test with course objectives.

As faculty members Paula Bradfield-Kreider and Jacqueline Kyle have noted, without such tables students may omit coverage for some goals or taxonomical levels and include assessment items or criteria for which there are no corresponding objectives. Several texts discuss the purpose and value of tables of specification as well as the steps students should take in constructing such a display (see, e.g., Carey, 1988, pp. 82-89; Hopkins & Antes, 1989, pp. 37-42).

6. *Rating alignment.* Western's assessment system for TWSs includes a rubric to rate students' work in aligning goals and objectives with their units' assessments (see Table 9.1). Aligning outcomes, instruction, and preinstructional pupil status with assessment strategies is, we believe, the most crucial skill students will develop in learning how to construct the plans for a high-quality teacher work sample. Table 9.1 can be used to assess students' TWSs, but it can also be used to guide instruction. By reviewing an example TWS assessment component (measures and tables of specification), students can complete Table 9.1 to consolidate in their minds the discussion of alignment.

Table 9.1. Rubric for Rating TWS Alignment

Scoring. This rubric comprises only one indicator. Circle the most appropriate rating in the column on the right, using the indicator descriptions on the left.

Indicator	**Rating**
Assessment *does not* reflect the learning outcomes planned; *all* assessment tasks or questions are *unrelated* to the goals for learning.	1
Assessment *inadequately* reflects the learning outcomes planned; *most* assessment tasks or questions are *unrelated* to the goals for learning.	2
Assessment *moderately* reflects the learning outcomes planned; *about half* the assessment tasks or questions are *related* to the learning goals.	3
Assessment *adequately* reflects the learning outcomes planned; *half to three quarters* of the assessment tasks or questions are *related* to the goals for learning.	4
Assessment *favorably* reflects the learning outcomes planned; *most* tasks or questions are *related* to the goals for learning.	5
Assessment *clearly and obviously* reflects the learning outcomes planned; *all* tasks or questions are *unquestionably related* to the goals for learning.	6

A rubric for rating the alignment between the measurement strategies and children's current needs (called developmental appropriateness) is shown in Table 9.2. The section in the figure dealing with *enabling behaviors* asks the faculty member to determine the degree to which only those behaviors that were necessary to attain the objective(s) were assessed. All who have constructed assessments know how easy it is to have an interesting or cute but nonaligned item or criterion creep into a measure. The rating in Table 9.2 may help prospective teachers be aware early in their careers of unwanted items or criteria. (We return, later in this chapter when we discuss developmental concerns about measures, to a discussion of the first segment of the rubric in Table 9.2, Appropriateness.)

Table of Specifications for Aligning Measures With Stated Unit Learning Objectives

James W. Long

As part of the work sample methodology, preservice teachers are expected to create and administer both pre- and postassessment instruments that accurately and completely measure the degree to which pupils achieve the learning goals and specific behavioral objectives. Preservice teachers can choose the kind of instrument they create (e.g., objective test, performance scoring guide) and whether the constructed measures are to be identical or parallel in design. One of the more difficult and often subjective tasks for the university supervisor is determining the validity and reliability of the instruments used by preservice teachers to assess pupils' learning.

At Western, a table of specifications format such as the one excerpted below is commonly used to show the match between unit outcomes and the items or criteria used in the assessments. Additionally, the format facilitates the college supervisor's task in rating the alignment of both the pre- and postassessment instruments to those outcomes.

Table of Specifications

Question	Type of question	Objective number							
		1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	2.1	2.2	2.3	3.1
1	Multiple choice								X
2	Multiple choice				X				
3	Multiple choice		X						
. . .									
29	Fill-in			X					
30	Fill-in		X						
31	Matching								X
32	Matching		X						
. . .									
43	Essay-criterion 1					X			
44	Essay-criterion 2					X			
45	Essay-criterion 3						X		
Totals		6	7	8	3	6	7	2	6

One strategy that makes this process more objective is to require preservice teachers to identify in their TWS plans, next to each assessment item, the individual objective or objectives that item is intended to assess (as in the table above). I also request that prospective teachers number their goals and then indicate their objectives as subitems under specific goals (e.g., Goal 1, Objective 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4). Then I am able to identify the degree to which individual assessment items relate to the stated goals and objectives.

Lack of alignment usually results from including assessment items that do not match the cognitive or performance levels of the stated objectives or the presence of the objectives that were stated but never measured by the assessment instruments. The process of constructing a table of specifications also tends to point out to preservice teachers just which goals and objectives their assessment instruments are not addressing. Because I require preservice teachers to turn in their goals and objectives along with their proposed assessment measures before beginning instruction for the unit, students can make the needed changes after I review their tables.

box continues next page

Alignment Rating of Assessment Devices for Each Objective

Assessment device description: ______________________________

Pretest or post test (circle one) *Identical or parallel* (circle one)

Question	Cognitive level	Item type or criterion	Objective alignment rating (2 = full, 1 = partial, 0 = none)								
			1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	2.1	2.2	3.1	3.2	
1	Knowledge	Multiple choice	2								
2	Knowledge	Multiple choice		1							
3	Knowledge	Multiple choice		1							
4	Comprehension	Matching		2							
5	Comprehension	Matching				1					
6	Comprehension	Matching				0					
7	Comprehension	Matching				1					
8	Comprehension	Matching					2				
9	Comprehension	Matching						2			
10	Application	Essay criteria:									
		A = 2 points							0		
		B = 2 points							2		
		C = 4 points								2	
		D = 1 point								2	
		E = 6 points								2	**Sum**
Total items/criteria per objective			1	3	0	3	1	1	2	3	14
Sum of alignment rating			2	4	0	2	2	2	2	6	20
Average alignment rating (0 to 2 range)			2.0	1.3	0	0.6	2.0	2.0	1.0	2.0	1.4

As an evaluator of work samples, however, I was still not comfortable with the relative subjectivity involved in attempting to estimate the degree of alignment between stated goals and objectives and the measures. Moreover, I felt that preservice teachers would benefit from conducting a systematic analysis of their assessment items.

In an effort to increase the objectivity of determining the degree of alignment of goals and objectives to the measures, I created a spreadsheet (see table above) that preservice teachers could use to create a display like the table of specifications and the alignment rating of assessment devices. Slight modifications in the spreadsheet are necessary if the preservice teachers use a more holistic approach to assessment, such as a scoring guide applied to a child's portfolio.

The columns in the alignment rating contain the following information:

- The item number from the assessment instrument
- The cognitive (Bloom's taxonomic) level of the assessment item
- The type of assessment item (e.g., multiple choice, essay)
- The individual objectives listed numerically with their associated goal, e.g., 1.1 to 3.2

box continues next page

Table of Specifications (continued)

- The column under each objective contain is the alignment rating(s) for the items or criteria used in the assessment. The values 0 to 2 are shown indicate the degree of alignment found

The bottom of the table includes three rows of calculated information:

- The third-from-bottom row contains the total count for each objective. A 0 indicates that a given objective has not been assessed by an item or criterion; the number increases as the number of assessment items increases that address the same objective.
- The next-to-last row contains the sum of alignment ratings for each objective (each column).
- The bottom row shows the average ratings of alignment, ranging from 0 to 2. This calculation is simply the sum of alignment ratings for each objective divided by the total count for each objective. This value provides the average level of alignment, with 0 indicating no alignment and 2 indicating full alignment.

I also ask preservice teachers to submit a second table of specifications that I can use to complete my rating of the degree of alignment of their items to the objectives. I write in the rating number for the items and/or criteria. The intended outcome for creating a table of specifications is to answer the following questions:

- Are all the stated goals and objectives addressed in the assessment plan?
- Which objectives are not addressed in any way by the assessment plan?
- Do any of the assessment items or criteria address more than one objective?
- Are any objectives addressed by more than one assessment item or criterion?
- Is the alignment between an objective and a measure full, partial, or nonexistent?

The matrix format of the spreadsheet is intended to assist both preservice teachers and the university supervisor tp more objectively determine the degree of alignment for each outcome. The part of this model that needs additional work is rating the alignment of measures. It is numerically possible for a rating indicating partial alignment to be some value greater than 0 yet less than 2. How would one more objectively relate low, moderate, and high alignment to a numerical range of 0 to 2? As one possibility, considering the scale provided, a range of 0.5 to 1.5 would be "moderate," less than 0.5 would be "low," and greater than 1.5 would be "high." Unless all evaluators agree on the scale, however, an objective comparison across work samples is difficult to obtain.

Perhaps the real utility of tables of specification is that they can increase preservice teachers' awareness of the degree of alignment of their TWS components and thus provide more accurate information for reflective analysis of the unit.

If the prospective teacher's objectives and teaching strategies vary to account for pupils' differences, then it logically follows that variability in assessment items and strategies should also exist. David Wright, who stated this point originally, believes that students must be helped to make these complex connections in their teacher preparation program. The measures proposed in this chapter will help prospective teachers know how well they are performing the alignment skills.

All the decisions involved in ensuring alignment are complex, and teacher education faculty must be prepared to provide a great deal of instruction, practice, and feedback. Some students who are not naturally adept analytic thinkers will

Table 9.2. Rubric for Rating Appropriateness of Measures

Scoring. This criterion comprises two indicators: *appropriateness* and *enabling behaviors.** For each indicator, circle the most appropriate rating (0, 1, 2, 3) in the middle column. Add the ratings to arrive at a summary rating and circle the appropriate number on the 6-point scale.

Indicator	**Rating**
Appropriateness	
Assessment *items/tasks* likely to have relevance for pupils' lives.	No = 0 Yes = 1
Assessment *length* likely to be appropriate for pupils' developmental levels.	No = 0 Yes = 1
Assessment *response demands* likely to be appropriate for pupils' developmental levels.	No = 0 Yes = 1
Enabling behaviors	
Enabling behaviors embedded in assessment items/tasks likely to *strongly* confound results.	1
Enabling behaviors embedded in assessment items/tasks likely to *moderately* confound results.	2
Enabling behaviors embedded in assessment items/tasks *not likely* to confound results.	3
Summary rating: (low appropriateness) 1 2 3 4 5 6 (high appropriateness)	

* *Appropriateness* is a rating of whether the content is thought to be relevant to pupils' lives, the time available for the assessment matches the pupils' developmental levels, and the response demands fit the children's developmental levels. *Enabling behaviors* is a rating of whether the assessment measures skills other than those required to perform the concluding behavior (McConney & Ayres, 1998).

likely find the whole process difficult, if not nearly impossible, to master. The instructor needs to be prepared to provide a significant amount of time and support as students learn to ensure alignment of their assessments.

Assessing an Array of Outcomes

To ensure that students can align assessments with their objectives across all possible curricular outcomes, two other skills must be developed. If we value the principle that teachers need to be able to develop instructional units where the outcomes vary by kind and complexity, prospective teachers need to be able to prepare units where the goals and objectives

1. Are drawn from each domain of human academic achievement—cognitive, affective, and psychomotor.
2. Encompass the complete taxonomic range of the three domains.

Students need to be prepared to plan and align instruction for any kinds of outcomes they believe appropriate. In other words, they need to have in their professional repertoire the knowledge of how to plan, instruct, and assess all types of outcomes at whatever level of complexity within any domain as appropriate to their setting and to their instructional outcomes. To help students accomplish those two goals is a very complex task.

1. *Within domains.* Students need a taxonomic structure of some kind to help them get at the varying levels of intellectual complexity, affective commitment, and physical skill complexity. Not surprisingly, Western faculty regularly teach their students to use the cognitive domain taxonomy commonly referred to as Bloom's, although some also teach one espoused by Quellmalz (1985) or H. D. Schalock, Schalock, Myton, and Girod (1993).[1] Most faculty use the affective taxonomy associated with Krathwohl, yet its difficulty in use, particularly when trying to assign a taxonomic level to an objective, has brought about the use of at least one other structure developed by May (Girod, 1972). No single psychomotor taxonomy has been widely used in Western's teacher education programs.

One common way of instructing students in aligning assessment items or criteria to a domain level is to describe the kinds of measures commonly associated with each taxonomic level. For example, faculty point out the correspondence between a taxonomic level and the typical measures employed to assess that type of performance.

- *Knowledge level* typically is assessed formally through paper-and-pencil tests, usually using what are called *select type items,* in which the pupil selects the correct answer from a set, such as true-false, matching, and multiple choice items.
- *Synthesis level* often is assessed with paper-and-pencil test,using supply items in which the pupil devises a response such as in an essay or in a construction setting where a response is built by developing a model, a piece of art work, or a rearrangement of objects or ideas (as in a formula), all of which are usually new to the child (Haladyna & Roid, 1982, pp. 42-46).

The usual instructional strategy, after explaining the correspondence of certain taxonomic levels to different assessment forms, is to then ask students to develop a table of specifications where each objective is categorized according to its taxonomic level (the vertical axis) and the corresponding measures used are shown in the vertical column. Table 9.3 shows another example of such a table of specifications. By completing such a table, students can discern whether an item written in such a way (at the appropriate taxonomic level) provides an appropriate measure for its corresponding objective. Similar tables can be constructed for the other two domains as well.

Without such tables to organize their thoughts and plans, students often panic when trying to assess higher level thinking strategies and revert to assessment techniques they saw during their days in college classes. For example, Gwenda Rice has observed that anxious students teaching history classes often revert to testing names, dates, places, battles, and anecdotes.

Table 9.3. Specifications Organized by Objective and Taxonomic Level

Objective	Corresponding measures and taxonomic level
1.1 After the lesson on the Sun, pupils will be able to draw a diagram of the Sun's structure with its seven components correctly labeled.	Item 3: Knowledge–memorizing
1.4 After a lesson on the Sun, pupils will be able to correctly describe, in a paragraph with complete sentences, the apparent motions of the Sun as viewed from Earth.	Item 8: Comprehension–summarizing

2. *Across domains.* A central intent of TWSs is to serve as one source of information in deciding whether a student should be recommended for a teaching authorization. Such a decision needs to be based on the assumption that the TWS will portray "the widest possible variety of the student's skills without distorting the pupils' learning environment" (Ayres, Girod, Ling, et al., 1996, p. 13). That expectation serves to generate the following guidelines:

- The objectives sought in the student's work sample encompass a range of pupils' intellectual, physical, and/or affective processes.
- If supervisors are to evaluate candidates' skills as broadly as possible within the time and resources available, students need to provide evidence of the extent of their capabilities.
- In that every student will teach content and/or physical skills *and* attempt to influence attitudes within a work sample, clearly the expectation stated above anticipates a thorough representation of the person's performance.
- The requirement that complexity [across domains] be included in each work sample is, then, a standard for allowing a more valid prediction of the candidate's future performance as a classroom teacher (Ayres, Girod, Ling, et al., 1996, pp. 13-14).

The outgrowth of these guidelines is that Western students will, whenever possible, develop TWS units that include objectives drawn from at least two of the three domains.[2] That expectation comes, then, from the need to ensure that students' professional skills are as broad as the curriculum they will be expected to teach. Considering that all curricula seem to imply at least cognitive and affective outcomes, the expectation that each TWS will encompass two domains is necessary and logical.

An instructional strategy employed by Gwenda Rice helps students design affective assessment by helping them, one on one, develop Likert-type scales to assess attitudinal outcomes. After the student has written an affective/attitudinal goal, Rice sits with the student and asks what kinds of responses he/she would accept as indicators of a change in a pupil's attitude. Objectives and their corresponding measures are then prepared for the TWS. The box on pages 230-231 describes Rice's work with prospective teachers as they develop attitudinal objectives and measures.

Tilting at Windmills: Including Affective Objectives in Work Samples

Gwenda Rice

> As outcomes of instruction, affect is every bit as important to student well-being as . . . knowledge, thinking, skills, and product outcomes. (Stiggins, 1994, p. 306)

> A capacity for autonomous learning and a thirst for unending education are more important than accurate recall or simplistic application of the particular knowledge taught. (Wiggins, 1993, p. 34)

There is a long-held belief in education that positive attitudes and perceptions are crucial if students are to learn proficiently. In fact, much of teaching is directed toward the development of pupils' beliefs, attitudes, and values. Yet for a variety of reasons, teachers tend to ignore the affective domain when articulating objectives or outcomes and when designing ways to assess them. Student teachers, preoccupied with classroom management and the need to "cover the curriculum" and under pressure to show tangible learning gains, are even less likely to deal with affective objectives.

This box outlines the approaches I use to encourage student teachers to include affective objectives in their TWSs. I want them to understand the affective domain to fashion affective objectives and to design appropriate assessment items for their pre- and posttests. I grant from the outset that this endeavor is like tilting at windmills, and, in truth, the results of my efforts have been very modest. Some colleagues feel that it is futile for student teachers to include affective objectives in the short time span of the TWS, because most affective behaviors take a long time to achieve. They believe that student teachers become frustrated and demoralized by assessment results that are often ambiguous, inclusive, and difficult to show on a graph of learning gains. All this I concede. My goal in promoting the inclusion of affective objectives is long term, however, beyond the TWS to the time when student teachers have their own classrooms. I want prospective teachers to have a disposition toward including the affective domain in their teaching and to think about its impact on traditional learning outcomes.

The TWS has a way of formalizing planning processes. It is my belief that, if student teachers include affective objectives in their TWS under my guidance and if they receive useful feedback from me, they are more likely to attempt it again when they have their own classrooms. From the start, I am frank with student teachers about the limitations of this approach and the problems of trying to bring about any meaningful change in behavior in such a short time. I also discuss the results of their assessment that may be ambiguous, inclusive, or even negative. The real gains, I stress, lie in thinking about affective objectives, articulating them, designing and administering the assessment, and learning from the process.

It is important to provide a rationale and a context for this approach. I begin by examining with my students necessary definitions. We also discuss the role of the affective domain in their own learning and decision to become teachers. The affective arena is broad and complex, and I tell them that they will be taking their first tentative steps toward generating among their pupils such affective characteristics as "a positive self-concept, positive attitudes toward school and school subjects, clear and appropriate values, strong interests, and a strong sense of internal control over their well-being" (Stiggins, 1994, p. 71) or habits of mind such as "an openness to ideas, persistence, and a willingness to admit ignorance" (Wiggins, 1993, p. 37). As Stiggins (1994) points out, however, we cannot know pupils' feelings about things unless we ask, and this requires assessment.

The student teachers identify the affective objective(s) they wish to teach and have assessed, drawing from Anderson's list (1981) of affective conducts that have relevance in a school setting-attitude, interests, motivation, school-related values, preferences, academic self-concepts, and locus of control. Most choose objectives that deal with attitude, interests, or motivation. After writing clear and focused objectives, the next step is assessment. I share with them Stiggins's three ground rules for assessing affective outcomes:

box continues next page

- Ground Rule 1: Always remain keenly aware of the sensitive interpersonal nature of student feelings and strive to promote affect through your assessment of the outcomes.
- Ground Rule 2: Know your limits when dealing with affective dimensions of instruction. Assess school-related topics only, and get help when you need it.
- Ground Rule 3: If you care enough to understand affective outcomes and to develop quality assessments of them, then care enough to take the results seriously and change your instruction when needed. (Stiggins, 1994, p. 327)

Although the student teachers have at their disposal the whole range of assessment tools, I try to steer them toward using questionnaires that elicit pupils' responses about their feelings. They can use Likert scales to include a finite range of responses, or they can use open-ended questions. An important dimension of using questionnaires is to set the right tone in the class so that pupils will take the questionnaire seriously and answer honestly. This may mean permitting the pupils to answer anonymously, which means that only aggregate class data become available for the pre- and posttest analysis. It is also important for the student teachers to inform their pupils of the reason for gathering the information. Finally, they should follow through on the responses, even if it means changing the way they teach.

I share with the student teachers several options for inquiry formats for responding. For example, pupils can respond to a number of statements concerning their attitude toward a particular instructional strategy, group work, the textbook, or a novel they are studying. Likert scales can measure both direction and intensity of feeling. Examples of the possible range of responses along a continuum include

- Very interested------ to -------- Completely disinterested
- Strongly agree ------ to -------- Strongly disagree
- Always ---------- to -------- Never
- Very motivated------ to -------- Completely unmotivated
- Excellent ---------- to -------- Very poor

One popular option is assessing attitudes toward working in groups. Although I share different models for assessing attitudes toward working collaborately, Marzano, Pickering, and McTighe's statements in their collaboration/cooperation standards (1993) are effective catalysts for student teachers to design their own assessment instruments:

- I work to help achieve the goals of the group.
- I communicate well with other group members.
- I help make sure the group works well together.
- I perform a variety of jobs in my group. (pp. 125-126)

In encouraging student teachers to include affective objectives and related assessments in their work samples, my goal is to instill in these fledgling teachers "habits of mind" that will carry over into their teaching careers. Though the results of their efforts are often clumsy and simplistic, they nonetheless learn a great deal from the effort and demonstrate the ability to take a risk.

A second strategy is employed by Gary Welander, who helps students develop interviews they can use with their pupils to get at, in particular, social learning outcomes, such as "the child finds enjoyment during learning activities." Because students often lack the time to interview all their pupils, Welander suggests they randomly select six to nine children for an in-depth interview. He also proposes that the pupils selected come from varying academic skill levels, i.e., two to three children from the top performing group and an equal number from each of the middle and bottom groups. That sampling procedure enables the interview to shed more light on changes in pupils' learning by better representing the array of academic skill and attitude levels in the class. Welander also cautions students that their expectations for learning gains not be too high when dealing with affective outcomes. Often such behaviors and attitudes are difficult to influence, as they have often been formed across the child's life span. A 3-week unit may likely have an insignificant impact on such an attitude.

3. *Rating variety provided in a TWS assessment.* Any TWS that claims to demonstrate pupils' learning must present information that documents academic growth. At the same time, pupils typically present a variety of learning skills and needs, and, it is safe to say, not all children learn the same things in the same way. It is therefore also true that when a single assessment is applied to measure learning, all children are not fairly assessed.

> If your objectives and teaching strategies vary to account for different learning styles, various taxonomic levels, and varying developmental stages, then your assessment strategies will also need to vary. But you will need a clear focus to develop those assessment strategies and each assessment will need to portray a clear alignment with the outcomes. (D. Wright, personal communication, July 8, 1998)

Just as pupils respond differently to instruction, they also respond differently to assessments of the learning resulting from instruction. Consequently, any attempt to assess learning must recognize that variability and provide a variety of assessments that allow each child the opportunity to fairly demonstrate what he or she has learned.

In practical terms, it is suggested that teachers use multiple and diverse assessment strategies in a work sample if they are to fairly assess pupils' learning. Assessments may be formal or informal, select response (multiple choice, matching, or true-false), or produce response (essay or short answer, reports or demonstrations, observations of behavior, performance assessments, or other types of measures). Therefore, the general intent for the measurement of this variable (see Table 9.4) is that a TWS contain evidence of assessment of sufficient variety that all children taught have a fair opportunity to demonstrate their learning.

Table 9.5 contains a rubric that can be useful in clarifying for students exactly what is expected of them as they develop measures in their TWSs. The rubric shown evaluates the concepts previously discussed under the heading "vary by kind and complexity." It also assesses the degree to which the student's measures are reliable and fit with instructional strategies, particularly practice activities, in the unit.

Table 9.4. Rubric for Rating Variety in Assessment Strategies

For each indicator, circle the most appropriate rating. Add to arrive at a summary rating.

Indicator	**Rating**
Variety in assessment strategy	
No variation/diversity in assessment.	1
Some variety in assessment strategies that is likely to provide the opportunity for some pupils to demonstrate what they know and can do.	2
Good variety in assessment strategies that is likely to provide the opportunity for most pupils to demonstrate what they know and can do.	3
Utility of assessment strategies in reflecting learning	
Assessment strategies not useful for showing range of learning.	1
Assessment strategies useful in depicting a modest range of learning.	2
Assessment strategies useful in depicting a broad range of learning.	3
Summary rating: (low variety) 1 2 3 4 5 6 (high variety)	

Table 9.5. Rubric for Rating the Trustworthiness of TWS Measures

Scoring. This rubric comprises four indicators: *number of questions, internal consistency, evidence of practice,* and *similarity of pre- and postassessment.* For each indicator, circle the most appropriate rating (0 or 1) in the far left column. Multiply the first and fourth indicator ratings by 2, then add all four ratings to arrive at a summary rating.

Indicators	**0**	**1**
Number of questions/tasks 0 1 (multiply by two)	Some learning outcomes are ignored or *poorly sampled.*	Most learning outcomes are addressed and *adequately sampled.*
Internal consistency 0 1	Some assessment items/tasks seem out of place or *inconsistent with the majority* (measure different traits, knowledge, or skill).	Most assessment items/tasks seem *internally consistent* (measure the same general trait, knowledge, or skill).
Evidence of practice provided 0 1	*Little or no* documented or directly observed evidence of *practice opportunities.*	*Clear,* unambiguous, documented, or observed *instances of pupils' practice.*
Similarity of pre- and postassessments 0 1 (multiply by two)	Substance and format of pre- and postassessments are similar; judgments about growth in learning have adequate to *low trustworthiness.*	Substance and format of pre- and postassessments are similar; judgments about growth in learning have adequate to *high trustworthiness.*
Summary rating: (low evidence of reliability) ≤1 2 3 4 5 6 (good evidence of reliability)		

AUTHENTIC/ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENT

An assessment feature one should surely associate with TWSM is the concept of authentic or alternative assessment. Because Western faculty expect to find TWS objectives that vary by kind and complexity, an array of assessment strategies is usually found. "The appeal of alternative approaches—such as interviews, portfolios, and performance tasks—is their focus on students' processes, products, or performances rather than memory, information, or behavior" (Freiberg & Driscoll, 1996, p. 395). During the development of their TWS, students find that as they incorporate objectives from higher levels in a taxonomy, they must use a wider array of assessment techniques. They begin to use assessment approaches that are alternates to what they experienced as pupils. The derivation of such a professional skill in one's teacher education can come about only from careful, insightful, and thorough instruction regarding authentic assessment.

1. *Rubric for parenting.* Helping students become comfortable in thinking about alternative assessment approaches can be a difficult instructional task. A strategy Gwenda Rice uses during one of her first conversations with her classes about assessment is to ask students to think like they are parents of four teenage sons. They are to decide how they would determine which of the boys cleaned their bedrooms well enough to be allowed to go to the movies. What pieces of evidence would be required before deciding that the rooms were cleaned sufficiently? As students work through this problem, they begin to realize that none of the typical pencil-and-paper tests will provide the information they need to portray the boys' cleaning skills. Only a performance measure will work (see Table 9.6). And, when questioned whether a performance assessment is likely to be a valid way to assess something, they agree that it is the assessment format most widely accepted by parents.

2. *Rating essays.* Helen Woods uses another strategy to acquaint students with alternative assessment. After giving students a set of six short essay papers written by high school pupils, she asks them to grade the papers. Working in small groups, the students assign grades to the papers. Woods then asks her students to describe the components they saw in the papers that led them to assign grades they did. After the students agree on the components they think are important in assigning grades, Woods shows a six-trait Oregon Department of Education scoring guide for assessing such papers. The students are pleased to find that the components they selected as important to assess regularly are similar to the components found on the department's scoring rubric. Such an activity allows students to become familiar with both the difficulty of assessing pupils' performance and the consistency in rating a scoring rubric can bring.

Students also need to learn the disadvantages of alternative/authentic assessment. Many writers have discussed the negative side of authentic assessment, such as the labor-intensive aspect that occurs when performance and product assessments take the place of machine-scored tests (Maeroff, 1991) and the

Table 9.6. Bedroom Cleaning Scoring System

Component	Score	Indicators
Bed	5	Bed is made with no "fold wrinkles"* and looks neat and inviting. Sides and corners of sheets and blankets are tucked in.
	3	Bed is made with some "fold wrinkles." Covers are pulled up but bed does not look neat and inviting. Sides and corners of sheets may not be tucked in.
	1	Bed is not made, or covers are just thrown carelessly on mattress.
Floor	5	No toys, clothes, papers, or other out-of-place items on the floor. The floor is completely clean and vacuumed, even in the corners. The floor is clean under the bed.
	3	No toys, clothes, papers, or other out-of-place items on the floor. The floor has not been vacuumed. The floor is clean under the bed.
	1	Toys, clothes, papers, and other out-of-place items are on the floor. The floor has not been vacuumed. Things are under the bed that should not be there.
Dresser	5	The dresser is clean and free of dust.
	3	The dresser has nothing on it but dust.
	1	The dresser is dusty and has clothes, toys, and other items on it.
Closet	5	The closet is neat; clothes are hung up and games and toys are neatly put away.
	3	Clothes are hung up, but games and toys are not neatly put away.
	1	Clothes are on the closet floor. Games and toys look as though they were thrown in.
Total bedroom cleaning score:		

* "Fold wrinkles" occur when the sheet or covers actually fold over a little on top of themselves. Small indentation wrinkles in sheets or covers are acceptable.

potential for discrimination when a heavy emphasis is placed on performance activities like writing and reading (Feinberg, 1990). Though TWSM emphasizes the use of alternative/authentic assessment, to be fair, students must also be alerted to the negative aspects associated with what many of us consider a much better way to measure pupils' performance.

3. *Writing clear test directions.* At Western, every attempt is made to help students develop assessment materials that their pupils are likely to easily understand. Anyone who has ever suffered through an assessment where directions were unclear or the questions were ambiguous knows well the assessment data coming from such a setting were unlikely to reflect accurately one's performance. And under those circumstances, frustration and confusion likely dam-

aged pupils' abilities to perform to their highest level (Deutsch, 1979; Schunk, 1979).

To help candidates learn how to clarify test directions, Gerald Girod gave students a set of examples for clarifying test directions (see Figure 9.3). As instructor and students went through the examples in class, they discussed what the teacher needed to write or say so pupils would experience less confusion about each type of item as well as the introductory test directions themselves.

4. *Rubrics as scoring guides.* Rubrics are scoring guides. They are devices to help teachers rate a performance or product by stating the characteristics of each component to be assessed. They typically include under each component a description of behavior or product stated to represent various levels of attainment. In addition, a number is often given beside each attainment level so the teacher can identify for a pupil what numerical rating has been assigned. An unusual example of a common format for a scoring rubric is shown as Table 9.7.

Rubrics have a clear advantage for students preparing a TWS. The product or performance components identify for the student potential objectives. The scores assigned to each attainment level can become the criterion within an objective. And if the student is trying to also identify performance boundaries expected for very adept as well as less able pupils, the attainment level expectations (objectives) can be stated differently for each group.

Providing prospective teachers with a copy of a rubric, such as that shown in Table 9.7, can provide a concrete example for discussion of the format such a measurement might take. One can discuss the components being assessed, the indicators provided, and the scoring system.

5. *Reviewing rubrics.* One method for introducing rubrics that Susan Wood uses involves showing her students examples of assessment devices such as those developed by the Oregon Department of Education for the use of teachers. The students immediately see the advantage of using such systems in their planning activities. If a college instructor wants to make the connection between assessment, planning, and instruction, inspecting rubrics in a class setting is a powerful strategy. Students can see how to use the information to develop their objectives and to guide the focus their instruction needs to take.

6. *Devising class rubrics.* Another strategy where students learn to develop their own rubrics is accomplished when Paula Bradfield-Kreider asks her students, working in small groups, to design a rubric for one of the major assignments for her class. The students are to develop a scoring guide Bradfield-Kreider will use when she reads their papers. Students understand the assignment much better after they have helped devise the method for assessing their products. An additional outcome of this activity is that students will have seen Bradfield-Kreider's modeling of how pupils might be allowed meaningful involvement in the development of their classroom evaluations.

Figure 9.3. Guide to Writing Clearer Test Directions

Multiple Choice

Directions: For each of the next ___ items, select the *one* best answer. Mark your choice on the response/answer sheet like this:

A~~B~~CDE

or for Scantron-type sheets:

ABCDE
☐■☐☐☐

Each correct answer is worth 1 point.

True-False

Directions: Read each of the following __ statements. If the sentence is true, mark the T to the left of the sentence. If the statement is false, mark the F.

or for Scantron-type sheets:

If the statement is true, mark the A for that item on the answer sheet. If the statement is false, mark the B. Each correct answer is worth 1 point.

Matching

Directions: Match the term in the right column with the phrase in the left column that is its definition *or* an example of the term. Each term in the right column may be used [only once *or* more than once *or* once or possibly not at all]. Each phrase [has only one answer *or* will have one or more terms assigned to it *or* may have one or no answers assigned to it]. Each correct answer is worth 1 point.

Example:	*Phrase*	*Term*
5	1. A star pattern in the sky.	(1) perihelion
3	2. A cluster of a large number of stars.	(2) ellipse
7	3. A star located close to the celestial pole.	(3) galaxy
2	4. The shape of the path a planet makes as it goes around the sun.	(4) aphelion
		(5) constellation
1	5. Closest approach of a planet to the sun.	(6) spectrum
		(7) Polaris
		(8) Aquarius

Fill-in

Directions: For each of the following ___ sentences, provide the word or words to complete the sentence correctly. Enter your answers [directly on this sheet *or* beginning with item 131 on the back of the Scantron sheet]. The length of the blank line does not correspond to or indicate the length of the correct answer. Each correct answer is worth 1 point.

Essay

Directions: Carefully read each essay item before you begin to prepare your answers. Write your response to the essay item using only the space provided. Provide examples or diagrams to clarify your response. You may wish to outline your answer before beginning to write. The number of points each test item is worth is stated in the essay question.

Construction

Directions: Read the statement and work the problem in the space provided. Use the example below as a guide. [Underline *or* circle] your answer. Each correct answer is worth __ points.

Example: John works as an apprentice mechanic in his uncle's garage. He earns $8.40 an hour and is paid time and a half for overtime. During a busy week last summer, he worked the usual 40 hours at regular pay and 10 hours at time and a half. What was John's pay for the week he worked?

Solution: Hours X wage X overtime = earnings
40 hrs. X $8.40 = $336.00
+ 10 hrs. X $8.40 X 1.5 = $126.00
Total = $462.00

Table 9.7. Scoring Guide for Whining

Score	Purpose	Audience	Quality
6	• The purpose of the whine is to get a group response. • The target of the whine responds immediately with full attention to the whine. • The whine may have multiple purposes or targets.	• There is full audience participation. • Your audience extends beyond the boundaries of the initial whine.	• The whine is seemingly endless, possibly carrying on for days. • The pitch of the whine oscillates through the entire frequency range, beyond human hearing, causing neighborhood dogs to howl. • The whine is full volume, audible over a jet engine at full throttle.
5	• The purpose of the whine is clear. • There is a clear target of the whine. • The goal of the whine is achieved.	• Everybody in your area noticed the whine. • Many people participated in the whine.	• Duration of the whine is enough to engage the audience. • Pitch is high, like fingernails on a chalkboard. • Whine is audible over classroom noise.
4	• There is purpose to the whine. • The whine achieves its goal from the target through sympathy, guilt, or frustration.	• Most of the people turned to hear your whine. • Some people joined your whine.	• Whine lasts for 5 seconds or more. • Pitch of the whine varies. • The whine can be heard over the teacher's voice.
3	• There is purpose to the whine, but it failed to achieve its goal. • The whine may establish some sympathy for you.	• Some people noticed your whine. • One or two people joined your whine.	• The whine is heard but fades out. • The pitch is flat and lifeless.
2	• The whine does not have a purpose. • The whine gets little attention from the target.	• A few people joined your whine, but nobody really paid attention to it.	• The whine is barely audible.
1	• The whine has no purpose. • The whine is not directed at a target.	• Nobody noticed. Nobody cared.	• The whine is little more than a whimper.

Source: Erich Schneider's 5/6 class (May 1997), Liberty Elementary School, Tillamook, OR.

7. *Aligning rubrics to goals.* Another instructional activity Bradfield-Kreider implements involves assigning to a small group of students one of the Oregon Department of Education's goals for pupils' communication skills.[3] The group is to design a performance task where the goal of communication could be demonstrated and to develop a corresponding rubric. Each student is then to select two other department goals and do the same for those outcomes, but in terms

of pupils in their own practicum. Bradfield-Kreider reviews the students' work and provides feedback regarding their ability to design scoring guides. Students then have three opportunities to try their hand at developing rubrics, with two of those rubrics designed to be employed with the prospective teachers' pupils. These multiple learning experiences have a practical utility for the students.

8. *Rating assessment clarity*. To help students embed the suggestions regarding clarity in their directions and test items, Table 9.8 includes a rating scale one can use when evaluating TWSs. In addition, the rubric assesses the clarity of the scoring procedures. Using the three characteristics rated in Table 9.8, students can have a specific statement of their attainment of clarity in designing assessments. Students are likely to find the information in Table 9.8 valuable if they use it to rate an example TWS assessment before they design their own.

Table 9.8. Rubric for Rating Assessment Clarity

Scoring. This rubric comprises three indicators: *directions, questions*, and *scoring*. For each indicator, circle the most appropriate rating. Add these three ratings to arrive at a summary rating.

Indicators	**0**	**1**	**2**
Directions	Directions for taking the assessment are *not provided.*	Directions are provided but are *unclear or incomplete.*	Directions are *clear and complete.*
Questions	Most questions or tasks are *unclear or confusing.*	About half the questions are *unclear or confusing.*	Most questions or tasks are *clear* and *free from ambiguity.*
Scoring	A scoring procedure/*rubric is not included.*	A scoring procedure/ rubric is provided but is *unclear or incomplete.*	A scoring procedure/ rubric is provided and is *clear and complete.*
Summary rating: (low clarity) ≤1 2 3 4 5 6 (high clarity)			

Quality of the Assessment

Many variables can influence or even distort academic assessments. And teacher-made tests are subject to every one of those variables. To help Western's prospective teachers improve their TWS assessments, four characteristics of high quality measurements are stressed:

- Internal consistency
- Similarity of pre- and postinstructional measures
- Developmental appropriateness
- Feasibility

The following brief discussions of each concept describe how each is assessed within field performance measures.

1. *Internal consistency*. A concept somewhat like the similarity of pre- and postinstructional measures, internal consistency describes whether each test or

test component is made up of items or criteria assessing the same trait. Each item or task "consistently measures the same attribute (knowledge, skill, product, process, product)" (Ayres, Girod, McConney, et al., 1996, p. 5.22). If prospective teachers, in preparing their TWS plans, have developed clear targets (specific objectives) and completed a table of specifications indicating a high degree of alignment between their measures and objectives, then their assessments should be internally consistent. The match among the measurement items, criteria or tasks, and the purpose each is to serve should be apparent. Each measurement component should provide useful information about one or more of the objectives.

Two measures in Western's system assess internal consistency—the rating of alignment found in the table on page 225 and the second rating variable in Table 9.5.

2. *Similarity of pre- and postinstructional measures.* It might seem self-evident that preinstructional and postinstructional measures should be as similar as possible, but for a substantial number of prospective teachers, the two assessments are often vastly different. At least three reasons seem to exist for that unwanted and unwarranted disparity. First, some students design two dissimilar tests because the task for them is to construct tests to meet the demands of their supervisor(s). Until assessment is seen by all cooperating teachers as a practical resolution to the need to gather information, the necessity for consistently similar measures is probably viewed as not a worthwhile way to spend one's time. Second, prospective teachers have often been told that an assessment error is caused when the pretest informs pupils of how to respond to posttest queries. In their minds, using the information they received in professional evaluation and measurement courses, constructing dissimilar measures will eliminate that form of test bias. Those prospective teachers need to be assured that pre- and post measure learning gains can be accurately determined only when two measures assess exactly the same characteristic. With very young children, Jacqueline Kyle believes the impact of an identical form on children's posttest scores is minimal, because the youngest school-aged children do not seem unduly influenced by their test performance. Though the items and criteria need only to be similar, the academic traits being assessed must be the same. Third and related to the previous reason, some prospective teachers are hard to persuade that their assessments need to be aligned with their unit objectives. Such people often see completing tables of specification as busy work with limited utility. For students who are not analytical, however, completing a table of specifications for both their pre- and postinstructional measures may be the best way to ensure that they receive the help they need to construct measures that will provide a meaningful analysis of learning gains achieved.

Many people are concerned that administering a pretest to children often does little except to humiliate them and impose anxiety on their teachers. That concern is well taken, and if assessment strategies impose such negativity, they should be changed or abandoned. But there are ways to avoid those problems. One can use a strategy suggested by both Paula Bradfield-Kreider and Jim Long. They ask students, in a pretest, to draw a conceptual map of the topic and then draw lines making and describing connections between related concepts. They give the same directions for the posttest, with two comparisons drawn: how many topics are included in each map and how many appropriate connections are made. If pupils learned a great deal during instruction, their concepts should be more frequent and more complex (elaborate), and more interrelationships between concepts should be apparent to the children. Learners seem to be less intimidated when they can approach a pretest as a conceptual map. A second method is to use an abbreviated form of the posttest. A third activity is to use already completed work to serve as pretests. Inspect papers written in social studies as pretests for grammar, spelling, or structural lessons in language arts. A bit of thought can allow one to assess pupils' preinstructional skills without embarrassing or frustrating them. Steve Bigaj uses a fourth activity with his prospective special education teachers. Rather than talk about the similarity of pre- and postinstructional measure, Bigaj prefers to discuss test error. "We talk about informal but reliable tests that must meet conditions such as Do kids understand the test items? and Is there an adequate sample of test items to ensure meaningful interpretation?" Bigaj has found that students, once they have thought about test error, tend to make better decisions about the degree of similarity they wish to employ in their pretests and posttests.

David Wright recommends caution to his teacher education colleagues who wish to extol the virtues of identical tests. He argues that performance and construction assessments are often difficult to develop without making them identical. Some identical tests are unreasonable; when teaching children the Mexican Hat Dance, for example, a pretest is both embarrassing and foolish. Wright recommends that for some objectives an assumption of ignorance is acceptable as well as humane.

3. *Developmental appropriateness.* Assessments used to measure what pupils have learned and can do need to take into account the developmental levels of the pupils being assessed. For example, assessment tasks should address content that is relevant to pupils' lives. It would be inappropriate to ask children in primary grades to prepare a report describing the skills and knowledge necessary to obtain a driver's license. In addition, the amount of time required for children to complete the assessment should be appropriately matched to their developmental level. For example, measures for pupils in the primary grades should require no more than 10 to 15 minutes; assessments requiring more time may be vulnerable to lapses in pupils' concentration or attention. Similarly, the response demands of the assessment should be matched to pupils' response repertoires. It would not make sense, for example, to require early primary grade students to complete a typewritten report describing their summer vacation.

As noted, it is critical that children have a fair opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned and can do. To do so, assessments should provide each pupil this opportunity free from extraneous influences that may affect his or her performance. Some examples include attention span, psychomotor response skills, language proficiency (both receptive and expressive), and cognitive skills. Ideally, assessments should contain items or tasks that measure accomplishments of the specific learning outcomes and not differences in these prerequisite skills. Differences in reading ability, communication skills, or motor skills, for example, should not affect pupils' responses to assessment tasks unless outcomes in these areas are the specific target of the assessment.

> The only functional difference between those students who perform well on a task and those who perform poorly should be the possession of the knowledge, understanding, or other learning outcomes being measured by the task. All other differences are extraneous to the purpose of the task, and their influence should be eliminated or controlled for valid results. (Linn & Gronlund, 1995, p. 137)

Table 9.2 provides a rating scale one can use to assess and/or instruct prospective teachers regarding the developmental appropriateness of TWS measures. It will provide useful data when rating TWSs for prospective general or special education teachers.

4. *Feasibility*. Another characteristic of good-quality assessments is that they can be achieved from the perspective of both children and teachers. Feasibility includes indicators such as the *time* required for pupils to complete the assessment, the *design demands* of the assessment with respect to the age or developmental level of children, the *materials* required to carry out the assessment, the *marking and feedback* requirements for the teacher, and importantly, the *safety* considerations associated with doing the assessment. For instance, a science research project that involves the identification of pollutants in rivers and lakes may be very worthwhile and authentic (tied to real world issues) for pupils. But the project may not be feasible and may be frustrating for the teacher and the children if the identification of contaminants is so detailed that it requires the use of a mass spectrophometer (equipment not usually found in a high school laboratory). Using the same science theme, an experiment on the effectiveness of catalytic converters in automobiles may be motivating and very valuable instructionally but would not be safe if pupils were required to "collect" samples of car exhaust. Therefore, assessments should involve the use of materials that are readily accessible and safe for all children. Table 9.9 can be used to assess the feasibility of the assessments teachers create and use in terms of materials required, safety considerations, and marking and feedback demand on teachers.

Table 9.9. Rubric for Rating Feasibility

For each indicator, circle the most appropriate rating. Add the values to arrive at a summary rating.

Indicator	0	2
Assessment materials	Materials required to successfully complete the assessment *are not easily accessible* for all children.	Materials required to successfully complete the assessment *are readily accessible* for all children.
Assessment safety	Activities or materials required to complete the assessment *are not safe* for all children.	Activities or materials required to complete the assessment *are safe* for all children.
Assessment marking/feedback load for teachers	Marking/feedback load *is clearly not reasonable* for a teacher with a typical workload.	Marking/feedback load is *reasonable* for a teacher with a typical workload.
Summary rating: (low feasibility) 0 2 4 6 (high feasibility)		

TWS ASSESSMENT SKILLS

Reporting and Interpreting Data

Data Displays

Once the planning, assessment, and instructional tasks of a TWS have been completed, it is time to review pupils' performance and, eventually, the teacher's as well. For many prospective teachers, displaying data about pupils in a meaningful format is difficult. Some students do not immediately make the connection between the display of data about pupils and their objectives, for example. To allow students to make wise decisions in portraying pupils'learning, careful instruction requires that they see several alternatives. Two of the more thorough ways to show students how they might go about displaying their data are described below.

A method used by the faculty preparing special education teachers focuses on the individual child. The format proposed in Figure 9.4 allows the student to track the child's progress across as much as 5 weeks' worth of instruction. Each day, the student teacher administers the skill assessment the pupil is attempting to master, then circles the rating on the data sheet. The circled values serve as data points in a histogram displaying very clearly the degree of learning gains.

A second method for recording data about pupils shows scores for a group of children combined to show group as well as individual performance. Tables 9.10 through 9.12 provide three examples students might use to display their data.

Table 9.10 provides a ready comparison of pre- and postinstructional data. Such analyses, however, mask some interesting specifics concerning pupils' growth.

Figure 9.4. Daily Progress Record-Keeping System

Mon	Tues	Wed	Thu	Fri	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thu	Fri	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thu	Fri	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thu	Fri	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thu	Fri
10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 9.10. Pre- to Posttest Growth Analyzed by Total Scores

Pupil	Pretest score (maximum = 80)	Posttest score (maximum = 80)	Change in score
Austin	51	73	+22
Barnie	63	72	+9
Claudette	51	80	+29
Dorothy	23	55	+32
Elijah	11	24	+13

Table 9.11. Pre- to Posttest Growth Analyzed by Objective

Pupil	Objective 1 score (maximum = 20)			Objective 2 score (maximum = 5)			Objective 3 score (maximum = 7)		
	Pre	Post	Change	Pre	Post	Change	Pre	Post	Change
Austin	10	14	+4	0	2	+2	2	7	+5
Barnie	14	12	-2	0	3	+3	3	3	0
Claudette	15	17	+2	0	1	+1	2	7	+5

Table 9.12. Comparing Pre-, Practice, and Posttest Data Analyzed by Total Score

Pupil	Pretest score and percent (maximum = 80)	Practice 1 (maximum = 10)	Practice 2 (maximum = 20)	Posttest score and percent (maximum = 80)	Pre/post percentage change
Austin	51/64	6/60	15/75	73/91	+27%
Barnie	63/79	5/50	14/70	72/90	+11%
Claudette	51/64	8/80	19/95	80/100	+36%

Clearly, in Table 9.11, students can better discern growth in terms of each objective making up the instructional unit. A bit later, we describe how to help prospective teachers refine their record-keeping skills. Though the analysis of data from a structure like Table 9.11 would be much more revealing, the record-keeping demands on a preservice teacher would be extensive.

Table 9.12 shows how a student might display data when practice tests are included during a unit. Practice tests are most commonly used in areas where physical skills are at least part of the instructional focus, such as in physical education, industrial education, driver's education, band, or foreign language. The advantage of practice tests is that the teacher education student can look for performance changes before a posttest, which the pupil may view as a worrisome high-stakes assessment. For example, Claudette clearly benefited as instruction continued. Austin generally improved, but Barnie's gains were not impressive. Given Barnie's entry score, the prospective teacher would likely have expected more, although that child had the least room for improvement. Such analyses provide teacher education faculty an opportunity to discuss measurement concepts such as *ceiling effect.*

Analyses such as those in Table 9.12 do not tell the student whether the instruction and, correspondingly, the prospective teacher succeeded or failed. But such analyses do provide preservice teachers with many interesting questions they can ask themselves in their reflection on their performance during the TWS:

- What occurred that allowed Austin to learn so effectively?
- What happened to Claudette to demonstrate such dramatic gains?
- What occurred between practice tests no. 1 and no. 2 that seemed to have been so generally productive in terms of pupils' learning?

A concern many faculty have is finding a set of procedures they can recommend to students to allow them to share their analyses of the data while protecting the identity of their pupils. It is important that classroom teachers, pupils, and the parents of the children be assured that no one reading the TWS will be able to identify any of the children.

One way to teach students how to develop a record-keeping system and provide for pupil confidentiality is to include a technology course in a teacher education program. It would be very efficient if, in the technology course students taught how to develop a spreadsheet system to record data about pupils.

Three ways are commonly used to allow students to display learning data about pupils while protecting their identity. One is to ask teacher education students to provide only the child's first name—which still allows an unscrupulous person to determine a child's identity. A second procedure is to use the child's social security number in the TWS report, with the student having a master list maintained separately from the TWS report. This strategy also helps even very young children to begin learning their social security numbers. A third strategy is to assign two-digit numbers at random to each child, which are then treated as social security numbers. Whatever system is used, readers of TWS reports should not be privy to confidential information about the children.

Analyzing Quartiles and Clusters

Quartile analysis is a form of data inspection that many Western faculty ask their students to employ after the instruction for the TWS is completed. In such a data analysis, the student lists pupils in order based on the magnitude of their pretest raw or percentage scores. The class of pupils is then broken into four equal (or nearly equal) groups, and their gain scores are analyzed. Table 9.13 shows such a breakout for a group of 20 children.

Table 9.13. Pre- and Posttest Total Test Comparisons by Quartiles

Pupil	Pretest score (maximum = 80)	Posttest score (maximum = 80)	Gain for each pupil	Average gain by quartile
Immanuel	75	80	+5	$\sum$ = +5 $\bar{x}$ = +1.0
Norm	75	69	- 6	
Olivia	72	80	+8	
Mark	70	68	- 2	
Elijah	70	70	0	
Quint	65	76	+11	$\sum$ = +56 $\bar{x}$ = +11.2
Dorothy	60	68	+8	
Phyllis	60	68	+8	
Claudette	59	73	+14	
Fred	58	73	+15	
Jeff	51	50	- 1	$\sum$ = +91 $\bar{x}$ = +18.2
Linda	49	59	+10	
Sabrina	44	60	+16	
Barnie	41	72	+31	
Geraldine	40	75	+35	
Ralph	39	71	+32	$\sum$ = +174 $\bar{x}$ = +34.8
Honoria	30	66	+36	
Kris	30	42	+12	
Terri	30	74	+44	
Austin	23	73	+50	
			Total class:	$\sum$ = +326 $\bar{x}$ = +16.3

One of the advantages in using quartile analyses is teachers can better answer questions such as these:

- How did I do in teaching the most adept pupils?
- How did I do teaching the least able pupils?
- How did I do teaching the average pupils?

Based on the data in Table 9.13, a student teacher would be able to discuss several possible interpretations of class performance as well as analyses for individuals. A prospective teacher might generate the following interpretations while reviewing the data from Table 9.13:

- I was most influential (in terms of gain in scores) when teaching the least able children—the bottom two quartiles compared with the top two quartiles.
- I was least influential when teaching the top group, or they had the least room for improvement; hence, a "ceiling effect" may have existed.
- The overall growth, the number of children who gained in learning (16 our of 20), and the occurrence of growth in all four groups indicates I was generally successful in teaching.

- Four children—Jeff, Elijah, Mark, and Norm—showed some unexpected performances. Why did their performance decrease from the pretest to the posttest? Why are there only boys in this group?
- Does the fact that children with very low entry or pretest scores improved dramatically indicate that my tests have been too heavily focused on low-level, easily learned facts?

Quartile analyses do not answer nearly as many questions as they often foster. But prospective teachers regularly report they find such analyses helpful in allowing them to inspect pupils' performance, sometimes involving an overwhelming amount of data, more purposefully. Prospective teachers often become intrigued by the questions they can ask about the performance of children for whom they have invested a significant amount of their short educational careers.

Several faculty and students, however, became frustrated with the need to break groups into four equal quartile. Though they appreciate the analytic properties available in quartiles, they are annoyed with the need to construct artificial groupings. Western faculty often prefer to teach their students about the concept of *clusters* rather than quartiles. They encourage their students to develop three to five groups of children containing at least three pupils each and marked by the homogeneity of pretest scores. For example, in the scores shown in Table 9.13, Ralph's score is more like those of pupils in the adjoining quartile. If the concept of clustering had been used, Ralph's score could have been included as one of the six entries in the third cluster. The advantage of clustering is that students no longer need to worry about issues such as ties; for example, if six pretest scores of 80 had existed in Table 9.13, one of those entries would have been placed arbitrarily in the second quartile.

The analytic advantages of clusters are the same as those for quartiles. Teacher education students can compare the instructional impact that occurred with different ability levels (as defined by a preassessment). The prospective teacher often discusses pupils in each group further if the children's performance is unusual compared with their peers. And each cluster can still be compared with the total group's performance to help answer the question With which group was I most/least effective?

Another concern that exists when analyzing data grouped into quartiles or clusters is how one can select groupings (quartiles or clusters) if several measures are used during a unit, possibly including assessments drawn from more than one domain. For example, an elementary teacher might choose to preassess her pupils around two objectives measured by a paper-and-pencil test attitudinal questionnaire. The question facing her in completing a TWS would be Which data source will be used to establish the clusters? Typically, the decision depends on three factors: Which measure does the student judge to be most important in the unit *and* was employed as a pretest *and* will recur in either the same or parallel form as a postassessment? Once that decision is made, a selected pretest measure is used to develop the quartile or cluster groupings.

If a student gathers scores from a cognitive test and from an attitude measure, how might one lay those data out in a table in clusters? Table 9.14, a shortened adaptation of Table 9.13, shows one way for a prospective teacher to portray the performance range of a group of pupils.

Table 9.14. Pre- and Posttest Comparisons for Two Measures

Pupil	Pretest cognitive (maximum = 80)	Posttest cognitive (maximum = 80)	Cognitive gain	Pretest attitude (maximum = 10)	Posttest attitude (maximum = 10)	Attitude gain
Immanuel	75	80	+5	8	10	+2
Norm	75	69	- 6	8	6	- 2
Olivia	72	80	+8	9	10	+1
Mark	70	68	- 2	5	5	0
Elijah	70	70	0	5	5	0
Jeff	50	50	0	2	2	0
Linda	49	59	+10	5	7	+2
Sabrina	44	60	+16	4	6	+2
Barnie	41	72	+31	8	9	+1
Geraldine	40	75	+35	3	10	+7

As shown Table 9.14, the student apparently thought the more important measure is the cognitive assessment. The pupils' performance scores are grouped on the cognitive variable, but the attitudinal pretest, posttest, and gains are also shown for each pupil. The student then analyzes pupils' performance in terms of both the cognitive and attitudinal assessments. (It would be interesting to read the student's analysis of, for example, the relationship between the attitudinal and cognitive scores, which of the two groups the student thought had been instructed most fittingly, and how the student interpreted several of the attitudinal scores for individuals.)

Faculty at Western have described the advantages as well as the disadvantages of quartiles and clusters:

- Gary Welander believes the use of clusters helps to focus prospective teachers' attention and their analyses on their ability to provide developmentally appropriate practices, such as being helpful to talented and gifted children.
- Paul Yeiter says that quartile or cluster analyses help students find a way to talk about the performance of and develop reasonable expectations for both adept and challenged pupils.
- Christy Perry cautions, however, that quartiles and clusters suggest paper-and-pencil testing to many teacher education students. Too often they forget that performance and product assessments can just as easily be reviewed in a cluster or quartile format.

Table 9.15. Format for Summarizing Learning Gains

Summary of Assessment Results

Teacher: School:

School System: Semester/Year: Unit:

If more space is required than is available on this form, create your own form using a similar format.

Pupil	Preassessment	Postassessment	Gain (+ or -)
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
6.			
7.			
8.			
9.			
10.			
11.			
12.			
13.			
14.			
15.			
16.			

- Welander points out that quartiles and clusters help many students who have used several assessment strategies to portray for readers the range of pupils' abilities and gains with greater clarity.

Record Keeping

A related concern for students is how to keep track of all the data they are likely to want to trace during implementation of their TWS. If the TWS is even somewhat complex, it will be necessary for the teacher education student to devise a personal record-keeping system (as opposed to using the supervising teacher's grade book, for example).

One of the more helpful program decisions at Western was to ask the technology faculty, when they taught teacher education students about the use of such devices as spreadsheets, to focus the discussion on record-keeping systems. Two outcomes were met simultaneously: (a) developing students' skills with spreadsheets and (b) developing a repertoire of record-keeping formats. The box on pages 252-253 describes teaching students simultaneously about spreadsheets and record keeping.

A record-keeping system devised by Russ French provides his practicing teachers with a format for comparing learning gains that is easy to understand, use,

Figure 9.5. Directions for TWS Planning Assessment Procedures

Analysis of Preassessment Results

You are not done with your assessment plan when you plan and implement the preassessment. Two other parts of the plan are essential, and they must be completed before you begin instruction:

1. The assessment plan should contain specific assessment strategies for determining each pupil's progress throughout the unit. You are asked to supply information about these assessments on your daily plans of instruction.
2. The assessment plan must include a postunit assessment that will allow you to clearly indicate (a) which pupils have met which objectives and (b) the gains (+ or -) made by each pupil since the preassessment. You will be asked to provide information (copies) about your postassessment.

Postunit Assessment

We told you there was more to be done with assessment. When you have completed the unit, you need to complete three related assessment tasks:

1. Administer the postunit assessment. Remember that this assignment must provide information about each pupil's accomplishment of each learning outcome/objective and about the child's gains since the preassessment. To provide these kinds of information, the postassessment will need to be one of the following:
   - A repeat of the preassessment.
   - A parallel form of the preassessment (same kinds of questions, tasks addressing the same objectives/outcomes).
   - An assessment very much like the preassessment, perhaps more extensive, that provides similar kinds of data about knowledge/skills identified in your objectives.
2. After administering the postassessment and scoring/analyzing pupils' responses, go back to the Summary of Assessment Results [Table 9.15] and fill in columns 3 (Postassessment) and 4 (Gain). Remember that a student may demonstrate gain (e.g., preassessment score of 22, postassessment score of 84 for a gain of +62 points) or regression (e.g., preassessment score of 48, postassessment score of 40, for a gain of -8 points).
3. On the Analysis of Postassessment Results [Table 9.16], record each pupil's name and check *yes* or *no* with regard to his/her accomplishment of each of your stated learning outcomes/objectives. Under "Comments," provide information about any special conditions or extenuating circumstances that you or we ought to consider when reviewing a pupil's performance.

To analyze these data, you will have to establish standards for pupils' performance. What scores or performances on specific items/parts of your assessment are necessary to make the judgment that a pupil has achieved a certain outcome/objective? For example:

- I had several objective/learning outcomes regarding pupils' writing. One of them was that the pupil is able to produce an essay on demand that will contain no more than three errors in punctuation. Naturally, I taught pupils about punctuation as one part of my unit.
- As my pre- and postassessments, I gave pupils topics to write on and 25 minutes to produce their essays.
- When I analyzed the postunit essays for punctuation errors, I found the following:

Pupils	*Preassessment*	*Postassessment*	*Gain*
Joel Banks	11 errors	5 errors	+ 6
Cathy Watson	4 errors	2 errors	+ 2
Lance Carter	7 errors	3 errors	+ 4
Myrna Matson	9 errors	10 errors	- 1

- Before analyzing the performance of these pupils, I had already set the standard of acceptable performance in my objective. Joel and Myrna did not meet the objective; Cathy and Lance did. All these pupils, except Myrna, made gains, in some cases, substantial ones. Now I will have to decide what to do to help all pupils, particularly Joel and Myrna, improve in this area.

If your objectives do not stipulate standards of acceptable performance, you will have to set those standards and apply them to each pupil when you do your analysis.

and summarize. The project sponsoring French's work with 1st-year teachers required that he depend extensively on teachers' abilities to independently provide the data required to make licensure decisions; the data collection procedures had to be very easy to use. French devised a straightforward form (see Table 9.15). He also provided the new teachers with planning directions (see Figure 9.5) to use before administering their pretests and posttests, which should eliminate many of the teachers' procedural questions.

Displaying TWS Assessment Results

James W. Long

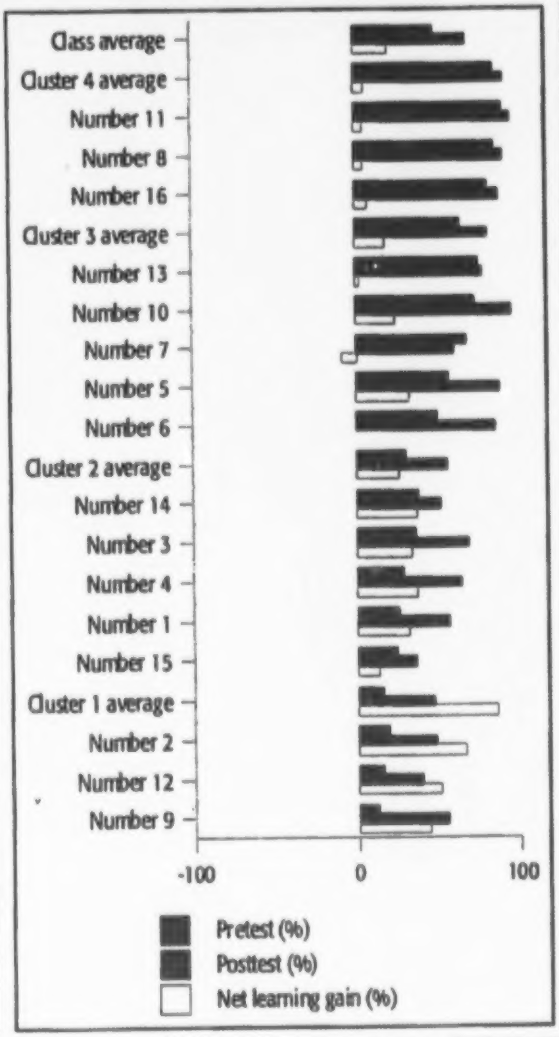
A meaningful display of assessment results supports an essential feature of teacher work sample methodology. Preservice teachers must understand their pupils' existing knowledge base before beginning any instructional unit. This preassessment not only gives preservice teachers an estimate of their pupils' entry-level performance but also provides a basis for comparison with the knowledge and skills gained as a result of the unit of instruction, as demonstrated on the postassessment instrument.

Western's preservice teachers are given instruction during a second-term technology course in the teacher training curriculum about how to set up a computer-based spreadsheet to display assessment results, sort and group their data, calculate the net learning gain for their pupils, and chart (graph) the results. The spreadsheet programs most commonly used are Microsoft Excel, Microsoft Works, or Claris Works, because they are available for either Windows or the Macintosh platforms and are the programs most frequently available in educational settings. Any spreadsheet program with a charting function would be suitable for the task, however. As well as working through a practice document with fictitious data, the students are provided a template spreadsheet document into which they can enter actual names and performance data and expand or contract cell rows and columns according to the size of their classes.

Work Sample Assessment Results

Student	Pretest (%)	Posttest (%)	Net learning gain (%)
Number 9	11	54	43
Number 12	15	39	24
Number 2	18	47	29
Cluster 1 average	14.7	46.7	32.0
Number 15	23	35	12
Number 1	25	56	31
Number 4	28	64	36
Number 3	35	68	33
Number 14	37	51	14
Cluster 2 average	29.6	54.8	25.2
Number 6	49	85	36
Number 5	56	88	32
Number 7	67	59	- 8
Number 10	72	95	23
Number 13	75	77	2
Cluster 3 average	63.8	80.8	17.0
Number 16	81	88	7
Number 8	85	90	5
Number 11	90	95	5
Cluster 4 average	85.3	91.0	5.7
Class average	48.3	68.3	20.0

Gains for Children in Each Cluster



box continues next page

The first part of the process is to create a spreadsheet (see the table below) with the names of the pupils in the first column. Preservice teachers should provide only the first names and, if necessary, the initial of their pupils' last names or devise an identifying code of some kind to protect their pupils' privacy in what will become a set of "published" data. In the table, pupils are identified only by a number. Under "pretest," students enter preassessment scores for their pupils. These figures might be a raw score from the instrument or a percentage score or the rating from a scoring guide. The only requirement is that the scores from the pre- and postassessment instruments be numerically comparable.

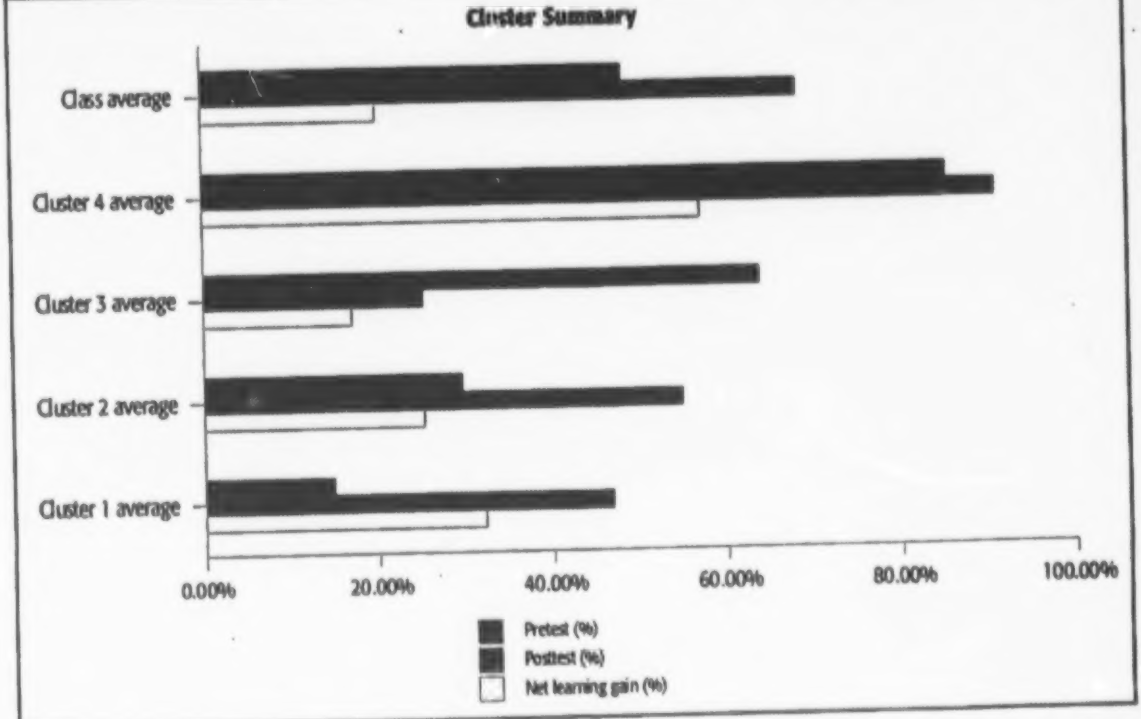
Following data entry, pupils' scores are sorted by value and divided into clusters of at least three pupils each. Usually, three to five clusters result from this process. The clusters are important in providing the teacher with an initial basis for differentiating instruction according to the various groups of pupils' knowledge and skill.

The cluster data also provide the teacher with a means of estimating whether they have met the needs of each child within the range of diversity that usually typifies a classroom whose pupils exhibit multiple abilities. This decision will become evident once the postassessment data are entered under "posttest" and the net learning gain calculated. The calculation in the right-hand column is the postassessment score minus the preassessment score. The resulting net learning gains are a basis, then, for the preservice teacher's discussion of the results.

It should be noted here that, given the less than perfect attendance patterns of some children and the occasional lack of adequate time for readministering missed assessments, pre- or postassessment data may be missing for some children in the preservice teacher's class. As the most important function of the spreadsheet is to calculate learning gains, preservice teachers are usually requested to note and possibly discuss the reasons for a lack of data on some children but not include them in the discussion of net learning gains.

As a final step, the student may chart (graph) the data for each child or each cluster as shown. The suggested format for these figures is a horizontal bar (histogram), which allows children's or clusters' first names or numeric codes to be more easily read. The chart can illustrate such possibilities as zero or negative learning gains in addition to a more visual comparison among clusters.

These charts and the data tables are included in the work sample. They are intended to assist the preservice teacher in composing a more meaningful and detailed reflective analysis of the learning gains achieved as a result of the work sample unit of instruction.



French also directed teachers' analyses of their assessments regarding whether they thought their pre- and posttests were aligned:

> *Alignment* means that everything matches. We have already pointed out that pre- and postassessments must be very much alike to make your comparison of results valid. Your assessments must also match your objectives. Remember that my objective in the earlier example was that the pupils should be able to produce an essay with not more than three punctuation errors. If I had given the pupils a test consisting of several sentences and asked them to identify errors in punctuation, that assessment would not have been aligned with my objective. Additionally, my instruction must match both my objectives and my assessments. In my instruction on punctuation, I would need to provide at least some activities where pupils write, then have their writing analyzed for punctuation errors by me or fellow pupils with feedback to them about what they produced. (1997, p. 8)

To complete his work with new Louisiana teachers seeking a teaching license around their TWS, French designed a table (Table 9.16) to help show how well each pupil performed in terms of each objective. French's table exemplifies a characteristic of a TWS, that "each youngster's gain in learning is calculated separately" (H. D. Schalock, Schalock, & Myton, 1998, p. 470). As part of the directions for completing Table 9.16 and its accompanying analysis, French asks students to respond to the following questions:

> 1. How did you assess pupils' performance in the objectives/outcomes *at the conclusion* of the unit?
> 2. How do you know that this postunit assessment was aligned with (consistent with) (a) your preunit assessment, (b) your learning objectives/outcomes, and (c) your instruction?
> 3. Did all or most of your pupils accomplish the learning objectives/outcomes for this unit? Explain, using the "Summary of Assessment Results" [Table 9.15] and your "Analysis of Postassessment Results" [Table 9.16]. (1997, p. 6)

Several general methods and measurement and evaluation texts also provide students with alternative record-keeping systems to consider. Sometimes those suggestions are included in a section on portfolios (Airasian, 1997; Freiberg & Driscoll, 1996;) and sometimes under the topic of grading (Carey, 1988; Kauchak & Eggen, 1998). Feedback from Western graduates, particularly those now teaching in secondary and middle schools, indicates they greatly appreciate help in devising a record keeping system and advice regarding different grading procedures.

Table 9.16. Analysis of Postassessment Results

Teacher: ______ School: ______

School System: ______ Semester/Year: ______

For each pupil in your class, indicate (yes or no) whether he/she met each objective based on the results of your postassessment. Under "comments," indicate whether pupils who did not clearly meet the objective made significant gains from the pre- to the postassessment.

	Objectives/outcomes										
	1		2		3		4		5		
Pupil	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Comments
1.											
2.											
3.											
4.											
5.											
6.											
7.											
8.											
9.											
10.											
11.											
12.											
13.											
14.											
15.											

Source: French, 1997, p.16.

Interpreting Data

A common difficulty for students is that after they have recorded their data about pupils' learning and displayed it, they still find it hard to know what to say about the data. Often, they draw conclusions about the unit from the data but provide little interpretation. For example, prospective teachers reviewing the performance of pupils on a recently completed TWS may present a table like Table 9.17. With one or two sentences of discussion, the student may believe that the data have been adequately interpreted. Many students may think that stating something such as "Objectives 1a, 1b, and 2c were commonly met by the pupils" and "Objectives 2a and 2b were least commonly met" is sufficient.

Table 9.17. Example TWS Data Conclusions

Goal	Objective	Number of pupils who met the objective	Number of pupils who did not meet the objective
1	a	14	6
	b	17	3
2	a	9	11
	b	5	15
	c	12	8

When reading a TWS report, most faculty would be very disappointed if the prospective teacher did not attempt to interpret, for example, why the objectives in goal 2 were met considerably less often than those for goal 1:

- Was too little time available for the objectives associated with goal 1?
- Was the assessment for goal 2's objectives more difficult?
- Did pupils have the prerequisite skills for goal 1 but not goal 2?
- Were the instructional materials and strategies just more effective in helping the pupils learn?

There are many questions students who are becoming self-directed in their own development as a professional should consider in discussing data from their TWSs.

One faculty member, Jacqueline Kyle, models the analysis of data by comparing two sets of scores she collects from the students in her courses (see the accompanying box). At the beginning of the term, she administers a pretest that includes questions about concepts associated with TWS, such as What is curricular alignment? How does a portfolio differ from a work sample? As part of her midterm exam, she readministers the test. She then enters both data sets for each student, substituting students' social security numbers for their names. Kyle takes the summary of scores to class as an overhead transparency. She then asks the students to review the data and suggest possible interpretations. They begin to develop an understanding of the array of analyses that are possible—by student, by cluster or quartile, by test item, by objective, and by total class.

Elizabeth Dohrn has developed second instructional technique to teach students how to analyze data. In her class for students preparing to become special education teachers, preservice teachers begin the process of learning to analyze information about pupils by first reviewing a form replicating a set of comments interpreting data collected about a single child. Their task is to decide whether the comments are logical extensions of data associated with the child. During the second step, students are given a case study describing the learning behaviors of a child following a week's worth of instruction. The students complete a form similar to that shown in step 1 in Table 9.18. In the third phase,

Modeling Data Analysis and Interpretation Skills

Jacqueline Kyle

To better understand how to analyze and present pre- and postassessment data, students learning work sample methodology need to work with actual data. In a class I taught that was designed to teach assessment procedures, ethics, and presentation of data relative to work sample methodology, it was feasible to preassess students' understanding of the main topics of the course. Following the pretest, I taught to the topics on the pretest, then postassessed students' knowledge to establish gains or losses. In this way, I was able to analyze outcomes for the course in addition to amassing raw data, which could then be used to teach the assessment components of work sample methodology. The steps of my instructional process were as follows.

1. Students were preassessed on the first day of class on their knowledge of terminology (e.g., *item analysis*), their understanding of TWS concepts (e.g., quartile or cluster analysis), their knowledge of standards-based education (e.g., scoring guides), and their knowledge of test design (e.g., writing multiple choice questions). Students provided only the last four digits of their social security numbers on their pretests to maintain their anonymity. The test was designed in a true false and multiple choice format, with the correct answers always *false* or choice C.
2. Papers were scored by the instructor and total scores listed randomly by social security number on a handout given to the students. The test consisted of 25 questions worth 4 points each, leading to a maximum score of 100 points.
3. In analyzing the gains, the class groups ordered the pretest scores from highest to lowest, organizing them by their corresponding social security numbers. They were taught how to group the raw scores into clusters and how to determine the mean score achieved by the test takers in each cluster. In addition, they were taught how to determine the mean, mode, median, and standard deviation of the total class scores.
4. The class then identified questions receiving the highest and lowest correct answer scores. The students postulated, as a form of item analysis, why these particular questions were missed the most or the least often. They made suggestions about how to improve assessment items and discussed how to write improved true false and multiple choice questions.
5. At this point, all students had been apprised of the correct answers to all questions, but they did not know *why* the answers to the questions were *false* or C. For the next 4 weeks, we discussed each topic assessed on the pretest in class or in assigned readings without specific reference to the test questions. During the 5th week, students received a take-home alternate form of the pretest addressing the same 25 topics or concepts. The students were to defend the appropriate answer to each question based on knowledge gained in class and from readings. The instructor graded this short-answer essay test, and scores were computed by concept and by total test. Those scores were once again randomly listed on a handout with corresponding social security number.
6. In groups, students assigned the appropriate posttest scores to the previous list of pretest scores. They then determined learning gains for each student and each cluster, based on percentage correct.
7. Working with the instructor of the technology class, students practiced their computer graphic skills and converted pretest, posttest and learning gains into graphic form.

In 5 weeks, the students had learned about several concepts: TWSM terminology and measurement; ensuring confidentiality in assessment; cluster grouping of scores; computing mean, median, mode, and standard deviation; procedures for analyzing items; assessment design and test item improvement; assessment procedures for alternate forms; determining learning gains for students; and computer graphing skills. Each of these concepts or skills is required in the completion of a TWS, and each is directly related to the outcomes of the assessment course. Students were motivated to learn each process as they saw each topic being relevant to work sample development, methodology, and reporting.

Table 9.18. Weekly Interpretation of Gains in Learning

Pupil: ____

Decision Rules

Advancement: The pupil will advance to the next step or next skill when she/he achieves ______.

Alteration: The program will be modified when the pupil does not achieve goal within ____ days.

Date	Step no.	Interpretation of data (Is it working? Why or why not?)	Instructional decision (What am I going to do about it?)

raw data plus the objective for the unit of instruction are given to the students. The students use those raw data to complete the report form analyzing the child's performance. In this instructional process, students preparing to become special education teachers are taught in a direct fashion the actions anticipated of them as they collect, record, and interpret pupils' performance data.

Prospective general education teachers seem to need to learn a variety of formats for displaying and interpreting their pupils' learning data. If they understand that the function of data interpretation is to help clarify both the attainment of objectives and the procedures used in attaining (or not attaining) those outcomes, they will be on the road to becoming independent in analyzing their own performance as well as that of their pupils. In teacher preparation programs where the development of self-evaluating teachers is a goal, the instruction around interpreting pupils' learning gains is certainly enabling.

At Western, the assessment of students' abilities in analyzing TWSs is accomplished using a measure developed by Oregon's teacher licensing agency (Ayres, Girod, McConney, et al., 1996, pp. 5.30-5.32). That measure (see Table 9.19) is designed to be used by supervisors as the prospective teacher completes the implementation of the TWS and develops a report describing the degree of success for the unit. (Table 9.19 shows only those parts that relate to the thoroughness of the prospective teacher's final TWS report.)

Describing the Context

At Western, students are asked to complete a thorough description of the setting in which their teaching experience occurs. Examples of site or context descriptions used in the elementary, secondary, and special education programs are included in Appendixes D to F. The purposes of a site description are to

Table 9.19. Partial Rubric for Rating TWS Final Reports

Directions:

Rate each subcategory using the following scale:
1 = inadequate performance
2 = adequate performance
3 = outstanding performance

Rate the category summatively after completion of the work sample:
1 = no proficiency
2 = beginning proficiency evident
3 = nearing proficiency evident
4 = acceptable proficiency evident
5 = good proficiency evident
6 = outstanding proficiency evident

___(4) Evaluate, act upon, and report pupils' progress in learning:
  ___b. Document pupils' progress in accomplishing state and district standards, prepare data summaries that show this progress to others, and inform pupils, supervisors, and parents about progress in learning.
  ___c. Evaluate pupils' progress in learning and refine plans for instruction, or establish alternate goals or environments or make appropriate referrals, when a pupil's progress in learning is less than desired.
  ___d. To the extent appropriate and feasible, collaborate with parents, colleagues, and members of the community to provide internal and external assistance to pupils and their families, if needed, to promote learning.
  ___e. Assemble, reflect upon, interpret, and communicate evidence of one's own effectiveness as a teacher including evidence of success in fostering pupils' progress in learning.
  ___f. If unsuccessful in fostering pupils' learning, analyze and interpret why this is so, and determine what the teacher would do differently if a similar unit were taught again.

- Ensure that teacher education students have become familiar with the more significant aspects of the setting in which their teaching will occur.
- Provide university supervisors with greater insight during their observations regarding teaching performances undertaken and pupils' responses and behaviors toward those teaching acts.
- Provide university supervisors with greater insight while reviewing students' TWSs.
- Provide program data to allow descriptions of the kinds of settings in which the institution's students teach, the types of pupils with whom they work, and the complexity of the curricula they are expected to implement. (These latter sets of information are very valuable for accreditation reports.)

Site descriptions help to clarify for both the student and the university supervisor the demands of the setting. Such information, if accurate, helps both parties better describe the current performance level of the student as well as predict future success.

SUMMATIVE RATING OF TWS ASSESSMENTS

By combining one's impressions of a prospective teacher's work in developing TWS assessment materials and procedures, a summative judgment can be made of the overall quality of that work. Table 9.20 provides an opportunity for a supervisor to rate holistically the effectiveness of the prospective teacher's work.

Table 9.20. Rubric for a Summative Rating of Assessment Decisions in a TWS

On the scale below, provide a holistic judgment of the overall quality of the pupil assessments developed and used in the TWS by this teacher.

Very poor quality 1	Poor quality 2	Fair quality 3	Good quality 4	Very good quality 5	Excellent quality 6

SUMMARY

This chapter offers teacher educators suggestions to provide many instructional alternatives as they teach their students how to collect, display, and interpret TWS data. It also discusses field performance measures constructed at Western that can be used as instructional devices as well as a means to evaluate prospective teachers' assessment skills.

NOTES

1. The cognitive domain taxonomy associated with Benjamin Bloom has a problem in that a test item thought to be a measure of the "application" level, for example, may in fact, be at the "knowledge" or "recall" level for a specific group of children because of the way instruction occurred. In other words, if the instructor inadvertently uses as an example in class the exact context included in the measure, the pupil is not applying knowledge but rather recalling the answer when that item occurs in a test.
2. This criterion, calling for a TWS to include objectives from more than one domain, may not apply to some settings where, for example, pupils with disabilities receive special education services. For those children, who may be learning a functional routine, a single, individualized assessment of the learning outcome(s) may be entirely appropriate" (Ayres, Girod, McConney, et al., 1996, p. 5.26).
3. Examples of such goals include "identify the author's purpose and recognize how structure and word choice contribute to it" and "write sentences that flow and vary in length" (Oregon Department of Education, 1997, p. 36, p. 24, respectively).

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Chapter 10

Summary, Interpretation, and Reflection in a Teacher Work Sample

by Susan Nelson Wood, Florida State University

Goals for Teacher Educators

After reading this chapter, teacher educators will know

- The components of a TWS reflective product
- Several strategies to foster reflection through writing
- Several ways to provide feedback about reflective writing

Objectives for Teacher Education Students

After reading this chapter, teacher educators will be able to help their students develop a statement describing (a) the quality of the instructional experiences for pupils, (b) the teacher's likely effect on that experience, (c) next steps that seem necessary instructionally for children, and (d) next logical professional development steps for the teacher. Students will be able to do the following:

Objectives	Sources of measures
1. Summarize whether learning gains have been achieved and speculate about what may have caused pupils' achievement.	Figure 10.4; Table 10.1
2. Summarize what went well in the unit.	Figure 10.4; Table 10.1
3. Decide what the children need to learn next and what the teacher's next professional development steps will be.	Figure 10.4; Table 10.1

Broadly speaking, the aim of a teacher work sample (TWS) is to make visible the complexity of a teacher's effectiveness in terms of pupils' learning. Toward that end, the goal of a TWS is (a) to demonstrate pupils' learning and (b) to demonstrate the teacher's learning about pupils' learning. The reader of a finished TWS should be able to "see" the teacher's ability to think about fostering pupils' learning; that picture of the teacher's ability will emerge holistically throughout the TWS and will also appear finely detailed in the summative narratives at the end of the document.

In the final work sample, a teacher's effectiveness is determined through many methods that demonstrate pupils' learning: Teachers document the ability to set standards for pupils' learning, plan lessons appropriate for pupils' needs, pre- and postassess students to determine learning gains, and modify lessons. The teacher's effectiveness is also determined through methods that demonstrate his/her learning about how to improve pupils' learning and how to analyze context, interpret assessment data, and reflect on the processes to influence pupils' learning. Certainly, all written components of the TWS implicitly demonstrate a connection between teaching and learning, but the ultimate outcome is to explicitly document the overarching aim of improving learning for pupils.

Western Oregon University students are asked to write two explicitly reflective pieces as part of a TWS. In these two essays, preservice teachers write

1. A reflection of pupils' learning as summarized and interpreted from both formal and informal assessments (describing the unit of study as a whole)
2. A reflection of teacher learning and thinking (focused specifically on the TWS and drawn from the range of experiences in the field placement)

Helping prospective teachers write thoughtfully and well about pupil learning can be especially challenging. This chapter attempts to define reflection in general, describes reflection more specifically in terms of the writing process, discusses the difficulty of learning to write reflectively, considers strategies for fostering the reflective components of a work sample, and suggests ways to provide practice and feedback to preservice teachers as they reflect.

True to the somewhat open-ended nature of reflection, I have chosen to write this chapter from a reflective stance: writing from a personal perspective, incorporating examples from my own students who were preservice teachers at Western Oregon University, and raising questions in the process. What is reflection? How does reflective writing serve as a vehicle for fostering reflection? How can reflection be taught? What are some ways to assess reflective writing?

WHAT IS REFLECTION?

Educators appear to agree that reflection is an important part of the teaching/learning process, but reflection means different things. Discussions about reflection are ongoing and pervasive in the professional literature, and few conclusions have been reached. Although I am not at all willing to presume a definitive response to the complexities of reflection, I would like to share some thoughts about that process as related to the development of preservice teachers at Western.

Most researchers define reflection in general terms by citing John Dewey and Donald Schön. Dewey (1933) described education as a meaning-making process based primarily on personal experience. According to Dewey, however, experience alone is not enough and does not constitute reflection. To understand the significance of the experience to us personally, we must reflect. Thinking reflectively, in Dewey's words, happens only when we are "willing to endure suspense and to undergo the trouble of searching" (1933, p. 16). Reflecting on

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experience, as defined by Schön (1984), happens two ways: reflecting-in-action and reflecting-on-action. In other words, reflective practitioners are teachers who thoughtfully plan in advance of teaching (reflection-on-action), who readily monitor and adjust their plans while teaching (reflection-in-action), and who consider the results of their lessons after teaching (reflection-on-action).

Reflection as conscious, deliberative actions and reactions may be organic as well as systematic, but the chief aim of reflection as described in this chapter is to improve instruction to foster pupils' learning. Reflection as a process of inquiry guides teachers to constantly analyze and use information about the teaching and learning experience, and it often happens in retrospect. To clarify this definition, I present reflection as a two-step process.

In the first stage, reflection is defined as any thinking process that leads the practitioner to know, do, or feel something in a new or better way. In the words of a 21-year-old preservice teacher from Western, "Reflection is a thoughtful response to anything. It could be to a piece of writing, a book, an event, an observation, something that was taught. It is a way to process the information gathered and make it meaningful to oneself."

Developmentally, making meaning for oneself is an important first step in any reflective process and must be acknowledged. Teacher educators who have worked for any length of time with preservice teachers understand that most beginning teachers are busy reflecting on their own experiences, making those experiences meaningful to themselves, the process Schön calls reflection-in-action. As students read the professional literature, discuss pedagogy in the academic setting, and observe in schools, they are summarizing, interpreting, and reflecting.

In a traditional model of teacher education, reflection-in-action activities used to constitute "effective" teacher training. In the outcome-based TWS model, however, effective teaching is considered on another, higher level. On this level (reflection-on-action), a teacher's effectiveness is demonstrated in terms of pupils' learning. This second level of reflection becomes the way the teacher processes the information gathered and makes it meaningful to pupils (Tell, Endsley, & Smith, 1999).

In this chapter, *reflection* is used first to describe the thinking processes preservice teachers experience as they grapple with the dilemma of classroom practice; it is also used in its adjective form to describe the formal written products that represent the process of reflection. Yancey (1998) describes a third step to reflection called reflection-in-presentation. Because the reflective components of the TWS are largely narrative in form and written to present to an outside audience, this discussion of reflection broadens. Issues of how to guide and support preservice teachers as they make the somewhat difficult connections between teaching and learning must include discussion of writing as a vehicle for reflection.

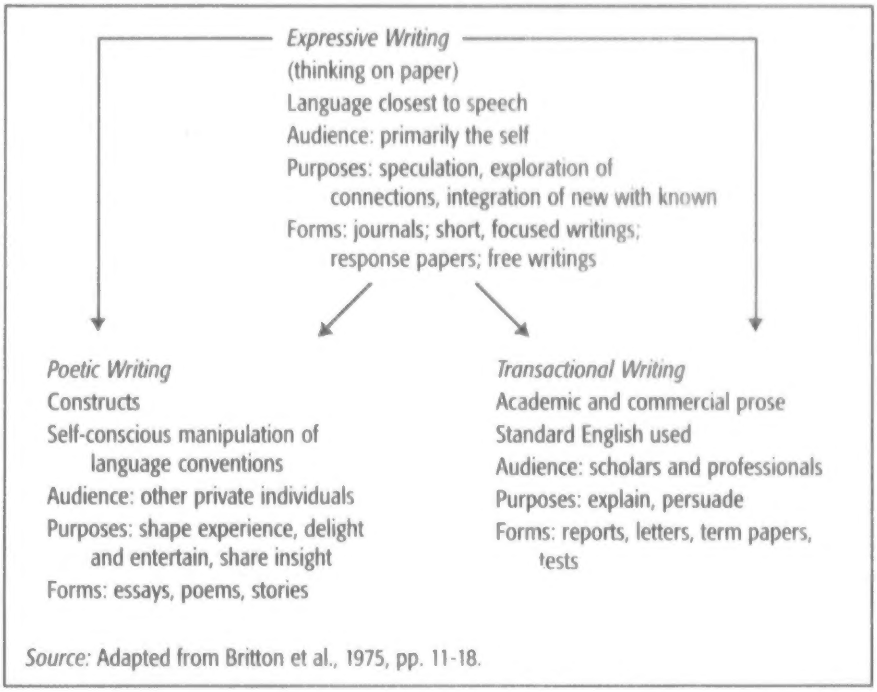
HOW DOES REFLECTIVE WRITING SERVE AS A VEHICLE FOR FOSTERING REFLECTION?

Quite simply, writing is thinking made visible. Theories and practices in the teaching of writing and in the professional development of teachers inform this discussion of reflection. The teaching of writing is grounded in theories of language and how language works (Sapir, 1961; Vygotsky, 1978; Wells, 1986), and theories of writing development echo Piaget's theories of child development: "The cognitive perspective expands gradually outward to accommodate audiences remote from self and to encompass subjects broader and broader in time and space" (Moffett, 1983, p. 153).

The shift in perspective, from self to other, is seen in developmental patterns of reflection (the shift from reflection-in-action to reflection-on-action), in general cognition, and in the writing process. As shown in Figure 10.1, all writing begins with personal experience and is written for the self to make meaning (Britton, Burgess, Martin, McLeod, & Rosen, 1975).

This deeply personal kind of writing is usually called *expressive writing*, and other more formal modes of writing, such as reports and essays, are adapted from expressive thought. In other words, it is only after a writer has speculated and explored, connected and considered (writing first in the expressive mode), that conscious decisions regarding more formal rhetorical situations (audiences, purposes, and forms) are readily made.

Figure 10.1. Informal Writing as the Source of All Public Writing



Expressive Writing
(thinking on paper)
Language closest to speech
Audience: primarily the self
Purposes: speculation, exploration of connections, integration of new with known
Forms: journals; short, focused writings; response papers; free writings

Poetic Writing
Constructs
Self-conscious manipulation of language conventions
Audience: other private individuals
Purposes: shape experience, delight and entertain, share insight
Forms: essays, poems, stories

Transactional Writing
Academic and commercial prose
Standard English used
Audience: scholars and professionals
Purposes: explain, persuade
Forms: reports, letters, term papers, tests

Source: Adapted from Britton et al., 1975, pp. 11-18.

Decisions about form and function are essential for any writing occasion, but as one preservice teacher explained, "Reflective writing can take the form of an essay, a poem, a question, whatever. The form isn't as important as the content. The content needs personal feeling, thoughts, questions, statements, beliefs, opinions, or anything else the writer feels is important."

Reflective writing, according to Britton et al. (1975), is thinking on paper, usually written in the language closest to speech, primarily for the self, and done to speculate, explore, and integrate. Another preservice teacher at Western defines reflective writing: "In order to reflect, a person has to personalize and connect the material." Some of the purposes of reflective writing were explained by yet another preservice teacher: "When I write reflectively, I question, doubt, analyze, enjoy, wonder, and relate. I clarify my thoughts and ideas, and I conduct inner reevaluation, asking, 'How will this affect my life and the lives of those I touch?'"

Helping preservice teachers think first in the expressive mode is the key to professional inquiry. Only then can we help preservice teachers think about revising and shaping reflective writing for more transactional purposes and public audiences, such as those inherent in a successful TWS. In other words, thoughts, feelings, and insights are captured firsthand and close up by the writer and then shaped from a more distant perspective to meet the needs of a reader, a format, and a purpose. Therefore, the best preparation for formal TWS reflective products is plenty of informal, expressive writing.

Writing reflectively in the expressive mode enables preservice teachers to explore issues of professional growth for self-assessment. Consequently, this discussion of reflective writing connects to teacher education and work sampling in some significant ways, as preservice teachers are encouraged to be reflective about their efforts to impact pupils' learning. As Yancey (1998) explains, "We learn to understand ourselves through explaining ourselves to others" (p. 11). Personal and profoundly important reflective processes are inspired by the public TWS product and become a valuable tool for improving the effectiveness of teaching.

Reflective thought, conceptually as well as practically, can be a somewhat vague aim. As teacher educators, we continue to seek clarification of our aims. What habits of mind do we hope to foster in prospective teachers? Based on the work of Ross, Bondy, and Kyle (1993), attitudes and abilities that represent competent reflection are suggested in the following questions. This list of introspective questions serves as a good starting place for helping preservice teachers become reflective practitioners. The list also serves to initiate an attempt to define features of reflective thought as demonstrated in writing for a TWS:

- Do I reconsider all that happens in my classroom with an eye toward improvement? Am I introspective?

- Do I accept responsibility for my decisions, or do I shift responsibility (or blame) to others when the decision contradicts my beliefs about good education?
- Am I willing to consider new evidence as it occurs and admit the possibility of error? Do I seek new information that might challenge my taken-for-granted assumptions about my teaching? Am I open-minded?
- Do I try to see things from multiple perspectives (those of the child, parents, administrators, society)?
- Do I search for alternative explanations of classroom events, especially for my own behavior?
- Do I use adequate evidence to support or evaluate my decisions and beliefs?
- Do I use educational and ethical criteria as well as practical criteria?
- Do I look to the future, situating myself on a continuum of professional development? (Ross et al., 1993, p. 30)

WHY DO SOME PRESERVICE TEACHERS FIND REFLECTIVE WRITING DIFFICULT?

In addition to the writing required as part of teacher work sampling, and in keeping with the recommendation by the National Commission on Teaching & America's Future (1996) that teacher education programs "establish and maintain a strong emphasis on teacher reflection and inquiry," students at Western are asked to do a variety of writing tasks, some of which are described in this chapter. More than just a few preservice teachers have expressed genuine frustration with these writing requirements. For them, assigned writing of any kind can be painful and is regarded as "busy work." Journal writing, especially, receives serious criticism. "Why do professors make us keep these journals about our school placements when they know we write it all in one night just to satisfy the requirement?" one preservice teacher asked.

"We have all been taught, oh so well, to spit out facts and figures," explained a preservice teacher at Western, "but reflection is another story." Becoming teachers who inquire into the effectiveness of their practice can often overwhelm novices. "I am making an effort to reflect on my actions and everything else in my life," another wrote in her journal, "but I find it difficult to make the transition from summarizing to reflecting. As a matter of fact, I have started to think reflectively on many things. When a person who usually lets things pass without a question begins to reflect on many things, a person tends to get confused." Indeed, to such a person, writing well takes time and can seem an impossible challenge.

Preassessment of preservice teachers at Western revealed that many do not consider themselves to be writers. Scores on an assessment of attitudes toward writing documented hesitancy (a strong tendency to procrastinate), resistance, and even fear of writing. In an analysis of writing samples, surveys, and interview data, themes emerged describing limited positive experience with writing and little to no opportunity to write in an expressive mode. These findings support research on composition as well as national trends (Hillocks, 1986; Langer & Applebee, 1987).

Certainly, self-efficacy and attribution theories (Bandura, 1977; Brophy, 1985) underlie some of the attitudes and beliefs observed in the preservice teachers at Western. In surveys and interviews, many prospective teachers reported they simply were not writers, had never been writers, and saw limited value in the process. Some seemed to have developed a belief that writing is reserved either for the domain of school (submitted to a teacher figure to satisfy a requirement and then assessed subjectively) or for the highly creative or to meet a personal need (a talent reserved for a select few).

Examining beliefs about writing is important for prospective teachers. If teachers see themselves as unable to succeed as writers, how likely are they to succeed instructing writing skills with the children they teach? Ashton and Webb (1986) report that teachers with low self-efficacy give up on students easily and tend to feel little or no professional guilt as a result of their actions. In the minds of such teachers, their personal inadequacy in writing means it is likely they will have limited success influencing their pupils to become good writers. When such a result does occur, these teachers find lack of success to be no great surprise and, likely, of limited concern.

The preliminary findings from informal studies conducted at Western and elsewhere raise many issues yet to be explored in this chapter or in the broader discussions involving TWS (Darling-Hammond, 1998) and have implications for TWS criteria that require teachers to write to demonstrate their thinking about pupils' learning. To date, guidelines defining reflection, standardized criteria for the reflective components, and even exemplars of quality reflective essays have seldom been made explicit.

If we fail to define standards for reflective writing, how well can we expect our charges to do it? Reflection might occur only after everything else has been designed and taught, collected, and compiled. Essays might be written prescriptively, not reflectively and expressively, done at the last minute, and submitted as a first draft with no clear sense of audience or purpose.

High-quality, first-rate reflective essays do not appear by magic in TWSs just because they are required or because preservice teachers have been asked to keep personal journals during their field experiences.

HOW HAVE WE DEFINED THE REFLECTIVE COMPONENTS OF A TEACHER WORK SAMPLE?

All components of a TWS could be considered reflective writing. But making meaning of the teaching experience through the lens of pupils' learning is central to the entire TWS. Certainly, thoughtful lesson planning, statement of a rationale, and clearly stated site descriptions offer implicit evidence of a teacher's effectiveness. However, for purposes of clarification, the discussion in this chapter limits the focus of reflection to two components designed to make explicit the connection between teaching and learning.

Assessment and Interpretation

As part of the final TWS, Western preservice teachers are asked to write a formal essay focusing solely on the assessment of pupils' learning.[1] Preservice teachers describe their methods of assessment, include copies of the questions or tasks, explain the rationale for their test design, detail conditions for administering the test, delineate the criteria and procedures for scoring, and discuss the results. Results are displayed in a cluster format (see chapter 9), and copies of the children's work are included.

For most preservice teachers, the thrust of the essay is a narrative interpretation of pre- and postdata. Preservice teachers summarize pupils' test scores using graphs and charts, but the narrative interpretation serves to explain individual results. Data are analyzed by cluster as well.

The prospective teacher is directed in Western's practicum guides to "summarize and interpret the growth in pupil learning achieved (or lack thereof) separately for each child in your classroom, for your class as a whole, and for selected groups within the class. Incorporate these data within your TWS report describing the unit of study as a whole."

Guiding questions prompt this essay: What did the children learn? Are there pupils who did not show learning gains? What might have caused the lack of learning gains? What evidence supports each of your conclusions? What other assessments, formal as well as informal, support or illuminate your findings? Based on what you learned about the children, what might you do next with them? What would you do differently? What do you notice about cluster gains? Are you teaching to only a segment (cluster) of the class?

Preservice teachers usually write their essays on assessing pupils' learning in the first person. Often their discussion includes narrative statements: "During my first week in the classroom, I became aware of three pupils who seemed to have no desire or intention of doing any work." In addition to discussing pupils' learning, preservice teachers analyze, justify, and criticize their assessment decisions. As one beginning teacher reflected, "I used a variety of assessment methods during this unit and they really helped me as well as the pupils. Besides the pre- and posttests and the assessments used for each lesson, I also kept a recipe box and made an informal observation of each pupil every day during my full responsibility. This helped me keep track of what was going on in many of the pupils' lives and also helped me keep track of their behavior. I learned to assess important issues."

Reflective Essay

While it might be possible to write one massive reflective essay, Western's prospective teachers are encouraged to write first about pupils' learning and then, in a second essay, consider their own learning as a teacher. While the second essay also focuses on the learning gains the children made, it goes further in reflecting on the total experience. This essay usually appears toward the end of the actual TWS and provides a degree of closure to the whole experience.

In the second essay, prospective teachers are asked to consider pupils' learning "from the perspective of your personal effectiveness as a teacher and your need for continued professional development. Include reference to the preinstructional status of pupils in relation to the learning outcomes to be accomplished, as well as the context in which teaching and learning occurred."

In addition, the novice teacher is guided to "include in your essay a discussion of what you might have done differently, or what you would do next, to enhance the learning of pupils who made less progress than desired. In the course of all these reflective tasks, feel free to address any aspect of the TWS unit taught and your student teaching experience as a whole."

Writing the reflection piece gives the preservice teacher the opportunity to honestly and thoughtfully discuss how things went. Topics addressed include all aspects of the experience, especially planning, teaching, and assessing. Questions to guide the writing include What successes and celebrations did you experience? What have you learned from planning and teaching this unit? What would you change or adapt? What are you learning about yourself?

Because the focus of the reflective essay is on the prospective teacher's learning, the content is often personal. For example, one Western teacher wrote, "Hard work and determination is what got me through this last term. I had many successes and I learned far and beyond what any test could have taught me. I've realized that behavior management is not something someone can teach me. … As a soft-spoken person, I learned to use my voice. … My relationships with the pupils and parents moved to a higher level."

HOW CAN REFLECTION BE TAUGHT?

Reflection as a habit and a practice can be taught in the context of a TWS. The task of writing for an audience other than self, of making thinking visible, becomes the springboard for fostering reflective practice, in action and on action (Yancey, 1998). The TWS, a model for standards-based teaching, gives prospective teachers "an opportunity to celebrate what is working and to rethink what is not" (Tell et al., 1999, p. 4).

Helping preservice teachers learn to write reflectively as part of teacher work sampling is a process that faculty at Western Oregon University have taught in a variety of ways. Strategies continue to be sought and refined. Some of the suggestions for fostering reflective writing for TWSs are general in nature, while others are more specific; all are discussed briefly in this chapter and are organized according to three broad categories: providing general instruction in reflective writing, providing practice and feedback in writing as part of teacher work sampling, and assessing the reflective components of TWSs.

WHAT ARE SOME WAYS TO PROVIDE GENERAL INSTRUCTION?

The possibilities are limitless for helping preservice teachers use writing as a tool for discovery, to refine their thinking, to analyze what happens in their teaching, and to reflect on pupils' learning and their own growth as part of the TWS. One way to reach the aim of the TWS is to focus on process. If we agree that writing is a tool for making meaning of experience (a powerful process for *discovering* meaning rather than transcribing meaning as it springs full-blown, Athena-like, from the writer's brain), then we begin to value the writing *process* and not just the final product as it appears in the TWS.

Methods vary for fostering the kind of clear writing that makes visible clear thinking, but practices should include theoretical concerns about writing as well as plenty of opportunity to actually write. The task for teacher educators is to encourage reflective practice as a philosophical principle throughout the teacher education program. Generally speaking, preservice teachers must be led to tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty; expect the unexpected; talk about surprises; examine assumptions; make connections, judgments, and mistakes; discuss and share thinking; and vary their own writing approaches. In such a climate, preservice teachers will feel safer to write for themselves in the expressive mode as a way to interpret and analyze their own learning as well as their pupils' learning.

Faculty at Western have had success with several general practices designed to support reflective writing. For example, no matter what the occasion for writing, faculty help preservice teachers think about the rhetorical situation by making sure the audience, purpose, and form are clear before they begin writing. Invitations to write expressively abound: Autobiography, response notes, and journal writing are three possible vehicles for fostering the process of inquiry that can result in successful TWS reflection.

Autobiography

Autobiographical writing is invaluable as a first step toward writing about pupils' learning. Autobiography requires the writer to use the first person point of view, the same perspective taken when writing the reflection components of a TWS. It has other benefits as well, as the example in the following paragraph illustrates. This particular activity was done over several days early in a professional program as a way to help preservice teachers begin to assess themselves.

Tomie dePaola's *The Art Lesson* (1989), a personal account of how the author grew to be a successful artist, was first read aloud to introduce the genre of autobiography. After listening to the story, preservice teachers formed small groups and discussed factors that supported dePaola's learning and those that hindered it. The students then wrote their own stories as learners, using *The Art Lesson* as a model. Their autobiographies usually ran three to five typed pages and were considered formal reflective writings.[2] Although general guidelines for the writing were provided, it was important that the content guidelines allow for personal exploration. The language of the prompts was deliberately ambiguous: "Perhaps you will write about . . . . You may recall a time . . . ." The audience was to be their peers.

Reflecting on their own process, the preservice teachers came to class ready to read and share their stories with a partner. Each pair discussed the factors that supported their individual learning as well as those that constrained it. The class then constructed a chart analyzing best practices. Just when the group began to think "best" practices worked, I changed the nature of the exercise by distributing copies of an excerpt sheet. Excerpts from their own papers were compiled into a data sheet, a small sample of which follows:

> Writing for me is still a painful process. To intermingle content, form, and emotion, to stay centered, seems a difficult task.
>
> I would literally sit at my computer for 2 hours and have three lines typed. Nothing would ever come to me.
>
> Since I've gotten a computer, I've done more revising because it makes it so easy to delete, move text, and insert new ideas. This has been very beneficial for me and has helped me learn to edit my paper for content, meaning, and transitions.
>
> Even now, I sometimes will create an intricate story on paper just to see where I take an idea.
>
> I think that once you have convinced yourself you are bad at something and you hate it so much, it is hard to get over that. I am trying.
>
> I do not have a story. Nothing great in my life led to a wonderful piece of work that many would enjoy reading.

The excerpts chosen demonstrated a range of feeling and skill, even within our own learning community. As we read and discussed the impact of the various quotes, we began to analyze them across cases to determine patterns, identify themes, and illuminate exceptions. This activity prepared the prospective teachers for any number of next-step activities, including an inquiry project or investigation into a promising practice, an interview with a teacher or a child, the writing of a case study, and, ultimately, interpretation of individual pupils' learning in a TWS.

Experience has taught me that it is important to begin teaching reflective writing for preservice teachers using formal models, like the autobiography example. The inclination might be to do it in reverse, the kind of "write what's on your mind; nothing counts but thinking" notion, but if you begin with such informal writings, beginning writers have no standard to aim toward and tend to think "nothing matters." It is hoped that more formal, clearly articulated writing tasks offer some standard of quality that helps writers assess their work and makes them conscious of their own skills.

All that said, it is also important to invite plenty of informal writing opportunities for discovery and exploration. As in the autobiography, informal writings should be done in a judgment-free way, safe from the pressures of grading, but with clear standards and purpose, clear audience and form. Response notes are one example of informal writing and are included in this discussion as another way to prepare preservice teachers for a TWS by focusing on the process of writing as a tool for reflection.

Response Notes

Response notes, often handwritten, can serve as a window into thought. The secret is to write quickly in response to an activity. The writing can take any form, be done for any purpose, and may be kept private. As one of my own students, a prospective teacher who was having difficulty connecting some of the theoretical readings in the teacher education program to the pupils in her practicum site, explained, "When I write quickly without thinking, it makes me work through it in my mind. The questions I couldn't voice bounce out and I notice I stop summarizing and instead begin to dive in and make sense."

Developing a reflective habit of mind takes time. As teacher educators, we need to model the practice by allowing plenty of class time for writing and sharing, talking and seeing, revising and rethinking. When we invite preservice teachers to engage in this kind of informal writing as an in-class activity, we should participate as well. If we write too, keeping our heads down and our pens moving, others will as well. Eventually, even the most resistant writer will become comfortable and soon more fluent.

Any learning event, including outside experience, is an opportunity for quickly composed responses. When response notes are composed out of class, preservice teachers will arrive, thoughts in hand, more prepared for the topic under discussion. Technology can even facilitate and make possible extended discussions beyond class time. Using Web Board, for example, preservice teachers at Western participate in private electronic exchanges, small-group distribution lists, a large-group listserv, and special group conferencing. In addition, they use the World Wide Web to find resources and communicate with a larger professional arena, all of which offer opportunities to do extensive reflective reading and writing. The best results come not just from the act of writing but also from the use of writing. Response notes inspire sharing and more meaningful thinking.

Journals

One of the critical features of reflective writing is that it arises from the expressive domain and is written primarily for the writer to make meaning of experience. Personal journals are more systematic forms of response notes in which the writer describes phenomena over time. The journal becomes a forum for helping preservice teachers have a sense of self as the center and a sense of their own ability to analyze, interpret, speculate, and evaluate. As one writer in class at Western wrote, "When I write and reflect, I am constantly thinking about whether these ideas would fit well with my teaching. The idea of writing a morning message would work well in my current placement."

Engaged wondering, the kind of inquiry we try to foster, is not an accident. According to Randall Engle, a member of the Western faculty, changing the audience for the journal from professor to self is the key to getting beginning teachers to use introspection. Just as teacher work sample methodology (TWSM) helps focus the attention on pupils' learning, the journal serves as an implicit way to record observations and keep anecdotal records from the preservice teacher's perspective over time. The potential exists for the prospective teacher to go beyond inquiry and reflection to self-assessment, using a form of continuous, ongoing documentation. As such, the journal can be a powerful tool for monitoring personal development.

In the teacher education program at Oregon's Northwest Christian College (1997), prospective teachers are provided with a list of questions to prompt their journal writing. The questions encourage writers to look more closely at their mentor, their own planning process, and their own professional growth. They are asked, "How does your site mentor deal with discipline problems? Does your enthusiasm motivate students to work hard and stay on task? What image do you want to project?" (p. 3).

Journal writing for journal writing's sake is not enough impetus for a writer to make connections or demonstrate personal growth. However, meaningless description is less common the more preservice teachers seem willing to take risks and expose themselves as learners. As one Western prospective teacher explained in her journal, "I have started to ponder on and ask questions about my life, the lives of others, and the world around me. I feel as if my brain is becoming scrambled and I cannot think straight any longer. I am not sure if this is normal, or if it ever gets better at any time, but I am willing to be patient with the whole process."

Journal writing, like response notes and autobiographical formats, can take any form, serve any purpose, or go by any name: dialogue journals, literature logs, learning logs, professional development notes. The point is to provide plenty of opportunities for personal exploration, meaning making, and documented growth.

WHAT ARE SOME WAYS TO PROVIDE PRACTICE AND FEEDBACK?

Clearly, preservice teachers should be prompted to write reflectively whenever it can be considered meaningful. Short-answer responses, like in-depth and analytical pieces, can encourage preservice teachers toward more complex thinking (Langer & Applebee, 1987; Qualley, 1997). The task for us as teacher educators is to find ways for the writing to be meaningful.

Assuming preservice teachers have a clear theoretical and practical notion of reflective writing, assuming they have had plenty of opportunity to write primarily for themselves as a way to think about experience, and assuming they have a wealth of documentation, the shaping and compiling of the actual TWS is more likely to focus firmly on pupils' learning. Everything has implicitly prepared the future teacher toward that explicit end.

Strategies listed here are more directly linked to components of the TWS and are offered as suggestions for prompting reflective writing as part of the process of compiling a TWS. Examples are given of ways to provide practice and feedback in reflection as part of lesson planning, site descriptions, and rationales. These components of a TWS, when considered developmentally, should lead the prospective teacher toward more fluent and thoughtful writing in the assessment and interpretation essays.

Lesson Planning

Reflection should appear as a fixed component of all lesson plans. During the planning stage before teaching a lesson, I encourage preservice teachers to note their questions, concerns, worries, and wonderings as part of their actual plan. For example, "Will all pupils be engaged in the discussion? Have I assigned too much or too little practice? Will the noise level be controlled?" As a follow-up to the teaching, the novice teacher revisits her initial questions, writing retrospectively, talking with others, and planning for next steps.

In a lesson format developed by Russ French for the Louisiana Department of Education for use in the New Teacher Assessment Program, preservice teachers are prompted to reflect, How did today's lesson go? What adjustments to your plan did you have to make? What did your assessments, if there were any, suggest about instruction in the remainder of the unit?

In a similar strategy used in supervision, Jean Behrend at California State University in Fresno provides opportunity to practice reflection with preservice teachers in the field after they have taught a planned lesson. She follows a three-question formula as a prompt for self-reflection. When asked What went well? What surprised you? What would you do differently? preservice teachers are challenged to take a reflective stance situated in terms of pupils' learning and behavior. One-on-one conferences provide opportunity for plenty of feedback.

Another less obvious way to practice reflection as a retrospective component of daily lesson plans occurs when preservice teachers are encouraged to keep observational journals at the practicum site. An example from one Western student teacher illustrates the kind of spontaneous insight that can be captured in this way. "I just realized that these kindergartners need to reread books again and again to gain a sense of the structure of written language. What I thought was repetitious is actually an important tool for emergent readers." Such a reflective insight might well be lost if not recorded at the time.

Reflective insights also might well be lost on the way to the TWS if feedback is not offered on how to use such data. Certainly, preservice teachers should draw from all informal writings as they compile the actual TWS. Notes from lesson plan reflections, anecdotal records made on students, flashes of insight recorded in observational journals—such writings serve as important data for description, narration, and interpretation in the final TWS writings.

Site Descriptions

A previous and a current Western faculty member, Christy Perry and Gwenda Rice, encourage preservice teachers to draw from observations written on-site as they compose parts of their TWSs. Written descriptions of the setting and classroom context, for example, are crafted from these notes. Site descriptions, rationales, and even observational notes on pupils are transformed from recollections written for self and find their way into formal TWS documentation. When guided through these early writings, preservice teachers are more likely to independently shape high-quality reflective essays.

Guidelines that have helped preservice teachers at Western write a site description, for example, have also been formatted into a "met/not met" scoring guide so that faculty can provide criterion-specific feedback. The description for this particular TWS component includes the admonition to write an expanded, more analytical, in-depth version of the traditional TWS setting.

Rationale

Guidelines for writing any portion of a TWS are helpful as the preservice teachers compose for the first time. To help the novice think more clearly, for example, about shaping a TWS rationale, I invite writers to imagine themselves asked to present the unit before a parent group. "Pretend the parents think this topic is fluff and your job is to defend it," I prompt. "Think nationally. Explain why it's important. Tell them what the state, district, school, and even classroom mandates are. Explain why you chose this topic, this method of teaching it. Why is the topic important to you personally? Why is it important for these particular children? Explain your decisions and convince them you know what you are doing."

Within the various components of the actual TWS are many opportunities to practice reflective writing. Often preservice teachers at Western work in small cohort groups to brainstorm, draft, edit, and revise their thinking. Open-ended prompts serve to jump-start the reluctant or hesitant writer, nonthreatening scoring guides direct the uncertain or less independent writer, and strong, collaborative faculty and student learning communities provide support for all writers.

WHAT ARE SOME WAYS TO ASSESS REFLECTIVE WRITING?

Although more and more states have defined licensure requirements that include reflective components as part of TWSM, at present in Oregon each teacher education program establishes its own methods and criteria for assessing reflective components of a TWS. As a result, defining reflective writing, determining standards for the TWS, and designing a scoring guide are critical but still local activities. For purposes of this discussion, I address general strategies for self-assessment separately from ways to consider faculty assessment of actual work samples.

Self-Assessment

As teacher educators, we need to assess preservice teachers from the outset to determine their understandings, interests, strengths, and needs as writers. Ask them, "Are you a writer?" and do not be surprised if they answer, "No." Support their growth as determined by individual needs, and devise ways for them to assess their own work.

In addition to serving as an excellent instructional tool, ongoing self-assessment is integral to quality reflection. Throughout the reflective writing process as I have described it thus far, preservice teachers are encouraged to document trends they notice in their own growth. For example, one prospective teacher described her thinking about herself as a reader, "I always approach a new idea demanding research and reasoning to support the view. I am especially doubtful when I have had a personal experience that makes me question the new information." Another used a framework from her reading and observed, "I can see myself moving through Regie Routman's [1991] five stages in becoming a whole language teacher. I am beginning to trust myself as an observer-teacher-learner-evaluator."

In a similar fashion, preservice teachers in my classes are invited to brainstorm and edit a generic scoring guide. This activity generates guidelines for reflective writing in a language the novice writers understand—their own. Drafting such a list is useful in itself, and it helps to define acceptable criteria.

Usually I take the activity a step further by inviting individuals to actually apply the class-generated checklist against a collection of their work. In other words, after they write several reflective pieces, they use the suggested criteria against five or six samples of their own work. For example, they might read through their writing and underline places where they *raise questions*. Maybe they make a check in the margin whenever they *state and support an opinion* using supported evidence. They might highlight occasions when they *make connections* to things they have read or seen.[3]

As a further step and as another way to foster self-assessment, I encourage preservice teachers to write a reflective piece in which they summarize and interpret their own efforts to write reflectively. As one writer noted, "As I look back on my papers, I notice that if I am writing about something I am not sure about, I tend to summarize instead of diving in. I kind of skirt around the corners but never connect to another event or happening."

In addition to preparing preservice teachers for opportunities to assess their own work samples, we model the intent of TWSM, leading the preservice teacher to become her own best research subject: "At the beginning when you asked who considers themself a writer, I was one who didn't raise my hand. Now it is all different. I think reflective writing is a powerful tool. I am looking forward to executing my first TWS so I can reflect on my skills as a teacher."

To offer more "official" feedback, I have revised the class-generated checklists into a seven-question scoring guide that allows me to respond to various pieces of writing using "met/not met" and narrative comments. I typically ask several questions as I read a set of papers for reflective writing (see Elbow, 1973, for a thorough discussion of these methods):

1. Do you write regularly, ensuring that work is on time and complete when required?
2. Do you recognize and remember facts?
3. Do you support your opinions with reason, citing primary sources and criteria?
4. Do you write for yourself, honestly and usefully?
5. Do you consider other audiences when appropriate (pay attention to conventions)?
6. Do you ask questions and state wonderings in addition to showing understandings?
7. Do you play the believing as well as the doubting game?

As explained in this section, the more opportunity writers have to reflect on their writing process and compare their work with other models, the more they will internalize standards. But standards must be made visible.

Faculty Assessment of TWSs

Elsewhere in this chapter, I have bemoaned the lack of published scoring guides for assessing the reflective components of a TWS. Guidelines defining reflection, standardized criteria for the reflective components, and even exemplars of quality reflective essays have simply not been widely accepted. More work is needed in this area. In addition to discussions about *how* to assess, more discussion is needed regarding specifically *what* should be assessed. If we agree that reflective writing remains one of the best vehicles for demonstrating teachers' thinking, we must be willing to grapple with our own dilemmas in this realm. To ignore the issues suggests a lack of our commitment to making complexity visible. Yet in fairness, methods for assessing work samples continue to evolve, and my colleagues at Western have also been grappling with the challenge.

Currently, Western teacher education faculty provide students with checklists, all intended to set criteria and standards for the reflective component of their TWSs. For purposes of this discussion, I have compiled a list of questions synthesized from those documents. The overarching goal of the TWS is twofold: to demonstrate pupils' learning, and to demonstrate the teacher's learning about pupil's learning. Remembering that for the most part preservice teachers write two distinct reflective essays as part of each TWS (a reflection on pupils' learning and a reflection on the teacher's learning), I present two lists of evaluative questions. Figure 10.2 contain the questions for the essay on assessment and pupils' learning, while the questions in Figure 10.3 assess the more general essay on the teacher's learning.

Checklists offer essential prewriting support to the writer and can also be revised into formats more useful for communicating feedback about the final product. What has been lacking in the professional literature is a more substantive tool for determining the level of proficiency demonstrated by the preservice teacher. As of this writing, the only such tool is that found in Table 3.5.

Andrew McConney, Fred Bartelheim, and I, at the time all faculty members at Western, designed and revised a matrix for assessing and evaluating the reflective products in a TWS (Ayres et al., 1996). Using a 6-point scale, a reviewer can make a holistic judgment of the overall quality of the reflection in the TWS according to two parts, each scored separately and then weighed together for an overall impression (see Figure 10.4).

Part one of Ayres et al.'s matrix borrows from Hatton and Smith (1995) and combines two frameworks to assess the type and sophistication of reflection using a 3-point scale. A description of the first part of the framework, types of reflective writing, follows:

1. A low-level response, for example, presents mere description and summary and makes no attempt to justify or explain. If writers recognize alternative viewpoints or causality, they fail to connect to these phenomena in a critical way.
2. Practical reflection, the middle level on the matrix, is described as the ability to step back and explore alternatives. It demonstrates open examination of means and also goals.
3. The highest level, critical reflection, is defined as the ability to include moral and ethical judgments. Reference to multiple perspectives is influenced by historical as well as sociopolitical contexts.

Figure 10.2. Assessment and Interpretative Essay

- Do the assessment techniques measure the unit goals and/or lesson objectives? Why or why not?
- Do the assessment techniques measure higher order thinking? Why or why not?
- Is it clear how the assessments were carried out?
- Is it clear how the assessments were scored or used for evaluation?
- Does your interpretation of what pupils learned include more than just the scores?
- Do you give specific examples supporting your conclusions of what pupils learned?
- Do you discuss individual gains, and do you identify those pupils who did not show gains?
- Do you provide reasons and evidence to support your conclusions about why children did or did not learn?

Figure 10.3. Reflective Essay

- Is it clear what changes you would make in planning, instructing, or assessing if you taught this unit again?
- Was an ongoing process of self-evaluation evident, with reflection on lessons, teaching, and pupils' behaviors?
- Is there a description of what you would do next with pupils based on what you learned about them?
- Have you provided specific examples to show what you have learned about teaching, learning, and yourself as a teacher?
- Have you proposed next steps for your own professional development that are logical outgrowths of what you have written here?

The second part of the matrix, levels of sophistication, uses the reflective questions adapted from Ross et al. (1993). For example, writers receive points for demonstrating the ability to look to the future, to appear open-minded, and to relate rich detail about their experiences. The two-part matrix has only recently been field tested and is a work in progress. It appears to be a promising instrument. A summative assessment form recently developed to be used with Western students includes ratings for both essays (see Table 10.1). Each rating scale asks the college supervisor to assess prospective teachers' skills in reflecting on their TWS experiences. The first scale requests an evaluation of the students' skills in interpreting pupils' performance, while the second scale is to be used to evaluate students' reflections on their own performance.

Helping preservice teachers make connections between teaching and learning is the goal of TWSs. Reflective writing serves as a visible documentation of their efforts. The task of setting standards, defining criteria, and determining quality in reflective products is our job. Continued efforts on this front will push us to reflect more practically on the dilemma of how to do our jobs better and will remind us, as reflective practitioners, to avoid the easy answer or delimiting model. We keep the conversation open and welcome new questions.

300

Figure 10.4. Scoring Rubric for Interpretative and Reflective Portions of a TWS

Classify the prospective teacher's reflective product according to the following rubric. Once the type and level of reflection have been identified, add the numbers under Type and Level to arrive at a summary score. Note that descriptive writing cannot have a level of reflective sophistication and therefore should be scored 0.

Type of reflective writing

Descriptive writing (0)

Not reflective. Merely a description of events that occurred/report of literature. No attempt to provide reasons/justification for events.

Descriptive reflection (1)

Reflective, not just a description of events. Some attempt made to provide reasons/justification for events or actions but in a reportive or descriptive way. For example, "I chose this problem-solving activity because I believe that students should be active rather than passive learners." Recognition of alternate viewpoints in events, actions, and/or research and literature used to support/explain events/actions.

Dialogic (2)

Demonstrates a stepping back from events/actions to a different level of thinking, discourse with self, and exploring the experiences, events, and actions using qualities of judgments and possible alternatives for explanation. Analytical and/or integrative of factors, findings, and perspectives and may recognize inconsistencies, for example, "While I had planned to use mainly written materials, I quickly realized that many students didn't respond to them. There may have been several reasons for this. A number of students, although reasonably proficient in English, had been ESL learners, and may still have lacked some confidence in handling the level of language in the text. Alternatively, some students may have been visual and tactile learners. In any case, I found that I had to employ more concrete activities in my learning."

Critical (3)

Demonstrates awareness that actions and events are not only located in and explicable by reference to multiple perspectives but are also located in and influenced by multiple historical and sociopolitical contexts.

Level of sophistication

Technical (1)

Concerned with the efficiency and effectiveness of means to achieve certain ends that are themselves not open to criticism or modification.

Practical (2)

Allows for open examination of means as well as goals, the assumptions on which they are based, *and* the actual outcomes.

Critical (3)

As well as including emphases from the other two levels, calls for considerations involving moral and ethical criteria, making judgments about whether professional activity is equitable, just, and respectful of others. In addition, this level of reflection locates the analysis with wider sociohistorical and politicocultural contexts.

Note: This matrix draws heavily on a paper by Hatton and Smith, 1995.

SUMMARY

The move to conceptualize teachers as reflective practitioners capable of using informed judgment and exercising thoughtful decision making embraces a view of teaching that is complex and holistic (Berlak & Berlak, 1981; Schön, 1984). A growing body of research suggests that teachers learn best when engaged in authentic learning tasks (Lytle, 1992). Teacher-initiated research, inquiry-based

Table 10.1. Summative Rating for Evaluative and Reflective Essays

Dimension	1 beginning	2 emerging	3 developing	4 maturing	5 strong	6 exemplary
Evaluative essay	The essay makes no mention of the effects of the teaching/learning context on learning results, does not blend formal and informal assessment results, provides conclusions that are inconsistent with the results reported, fails to tie assessment results to the stated goals of the unit, and does not summarize results.	<---------------------------------->				The essay clarifies the effects of the teaching/learning context on learning results, brings together formal and informal assessment for a fuller picture of learning, provides conclusions that are consistent with the results reported, ties assessment results to the stated goals of the unit, and provides a useful summary of learning.
Reflective essay	The essay is not reflective but instead describes events and makes no attempt to provide reasons or justifications for events. It is mostly concerned with efficiency and effectiveness of means to achieve ends but not the ends themselves.	<---------------------------------->				The essay demonstrates a stepping back from events or actions; is analytical and/or integrative of factors, findings, and perspectives and may recognize inconsistencies; and goes beyond a technical and practical emphasis on ends and means to also bring up moral and ethical criteria and make judgments about whether practice is equitable, just, and respectful of others.

learning that is field based, and the opportunity to conduct self-study are key components of TWSM.

In theory and in practice, reflective writing is a complex performance requiring sophisticated metacognition. This chapter offered some thoughts and suggestions for helping preservice teachers use TWSM as a tool for writing purposefully and well about pupils' learning and about their own development as effective practitioners. Writers write clearly, according to William Zinsser, because "the act of writing and rewriting made them think clearly, organized their ideas, told them what they knew and what they still needed to know, and pushed them to new areas of knowledge" (1988, p. 76). Teacher work sampling, because of the reflective writing component, has the potential to support preservice teachers as they develop into the thoughtful kind of professionals who "inquire productively into the effects of their teaching" (Darling-Hammond, 1998, p. 472).

NOTES

1. Not all Western faculty find the concept of a reflective "essay" useful. Because the special education program requires students to regularly review their portfolio, not just their TWS, students produce a more frequent but briefer reflective "product." Those special education candidates, however, analyze all the TWS components identified in this part of the chapter.
2. This activity is modified from a similar lesson taught by Dr. Ben Nelms at the University of Florida.
3. Again, I thank Ben Nelms for his excellent modeling of this strategy.

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Chapter 11

Practice and Feedback for Those Preparing a Teacher Work Sample

by Gerald R. Girod, Western Oregon University

Goals for Teacher Educators

After reading this chapter, teacher educators will know several strategies to provide practice and feedback activities for prospective teachers regarding

- Individual components of a TWS
- Combined components of TWSs in both small-group and individual settings

"People learn to do well only what they practice doing" (American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1989, p. 1). Though that principle is widely accepted, practice activities in college classrooms seldom occur. Teacher education faculty in the past seldom employed practice activities possibly because a lack of conviction existed that what skills or background the instructor chose to teach was of value. But teacher educators should view a teacher work sample (TWS) as a task all students need to perform *masterfully*. The skills embedded in teacher work sample methodology (TWSM) are those that every classroom professional should acquire. Moreover, TWS skills are sufficiently complex that students need time, support, and guidance to learn them well.

Once the TWS skills to be learned have been introduced and practiced, feedback to students is required regarding the quality of their performance with the new skill. The inclusion of feedback as part of the practice step is truly important: "The value of practice and feedback in improving learning is one of the most consistent findings from research on teaching" (Kauchak & Eggen, 1998, p. 131).

Two compelling reasons are evident for providing students time to practice employing the TWSM skills they have learned. First, the skills *are* important to the professional success of teachers. The alignment of instruction, outcomes, and assessment with the context and with pupils' needs helps ensure a high-quality educational experience for learners. Second, because TWS skills are important, teacher educators must make every effort to provide the most thorough and productive learning experience possible so candidates can master the proficiencies. TWSM skills are sufficiently important that they need to be mastered.

The inclusion of sufficient practice and feedback will also

- Ensure consistency and self-confidence in the student's performance
- Heighten the quality of one's performance as guides and cues are provided
- Allow decisions to be made about program continuation

In many cases, practice activities identify whether the student will be able to master the remaining skills or combine skills already learned in a more complex setting.[1]

This chapter describes activities in which teacher education students are to practice individual TWS skills (writing objectives, preparing assessments, ensuring alignment between goals and objectives) and develop a TWS containing all, or nearly all, the components. In addition, many of the activities start with students' working in small groups and proceed, as students become more skilled, to students' developing products by themselves. It is likely that, although we cannot ensure it, the more practice and feedback students receive, the more likely they will be able to meet independently the objectives of summarizing whether and what children have learned and deciding the next steps for pupils' learning and their own professional development. At Western, prospective teachers are expected to be able to construct, implement, and evaluate their final TWS independently. Practice and feedback will help ensure achievement of that goal.

PRACTICE ACTIVITIES FOR INDIVIDUAL TWS COMPONENTS

Chapters 6 through 9 discuss several practice activities Western faculty use in teaching individual TWS components. The following sections discuss additional practice activities that readers may find helpful in securing an emerging skill for prospective teachers. Practice activities need to be plentiful, because not all students will have attained or be able to consistently work at the highest cognitive function while constructing a TWS. A group of students learning to develop TWSs will need practice activities that vary in concreteness, the number of TWS components simultaneously involved, and the abstraction of the TWS topic or theme. The following activities should help expand the options available for students.

1. *Inferring objectives.* To ensure that her students understand the function of goals in describing the intent of a lesson, Jean Behrend asks her students to infer what her objectives were after she has taught a lesson to them. After the students have had an opportunity to describe what they think the outcomes were, Behrend presents them with her objectives for the lesson. As a final step, Behrend and her students discuss their views on any differences in perceptions. Veteran teacher educators know that helping students to be specific stating objectives is a difficult, frustrating task. An activity such as Behrend's does help students acquire proficiency by providing daily practice. Like other activities described earlier in this handbook where students comment on the instructor's teaching skills, such a lesson requires a great deal of courage from the faculty member.

2. *Writing complete objectives.* After students have been introduced to the task of writing clearly stated objectives, Randall Engle asks them to work in small groups. The students are assigned the activity of writing additional objectives aligned with an assigned goal. They also work to ensure in their group that every one of their objectives includes each of the desired components. This activity seems quite efficient in providing practice and feedback to prospective teachers about their ability to write aligned objectives in the desired format.

3. *Missing components in objectives.* In a previously described practice activity, Jacqueline Kyle uses instructional procedures similar to the one described above when teaching students how to write objectives. The prospective teachers receive statements of objectives that they are to analyze to determine whether each of the desired components is included. If a component is missing, they are to state which one it was and propose how the missing component should be stated. This activity is typically teacher directed, with individual students analyzing objectives. Kyle's approach likely benefits students who prefer to work independently.

4. *Alignment of goals and objectives with pupils' needs.* Elizabeth Dohrn involves students in writing goals and objectives that are to be adapted to the specific needs of a group of children. Dohrn, in her classes preparing special education teachers, uses case studies that provide a setting and a brief academic description (needs) of a set of children. The prospective teachers, working in small groups, select goals for the children, write objectives that correspond to the goals, and then explain how their goals and objectives are aligned with pupils' needs. Because this step precedes what students will shortly do in an assigned practicum setting by themselves, students do not question the necessity for the instructional practice or feedback from the instructor. Although the activity comes from a program preparing special education teachers, it could be very easily adapted to any type of teacher preparation program. Because the activity is done in small groups, it is relatively efficient. Students can expect to both receive feedback from and provide it to their peers.

5. *Preparing assessments.* After reviewing the purposes served by different types of test items (e.g., true-false, multiple choice, fill-in, essay), Jacqueline Kyle gives her students a copy of a high school text chapter and directs them to write two example items for each type. This writing assignment, given to small groups, allows the prospective teachers to practice writing each type of item. A useful addition would be to ask students to match the items to objectives they wrote for the instruction implied by the text content Kyle gave them. If they categorize those objectives according to a taxonomy such as Bloom's, they would more likely see the relationship between the different item types, objectives, and levels of intellectual demand.

6. *Developing preassessment materials.* In an instructional activity similar to Kyle's approach, Christy Perry provides students with guidelines for developing good

paper-and-pencil test items and the general purposes for each type. She then asks the prospective teachers to design a set of test items to preassess their practicum pupils for a unit they are about to instruct. The students meet with Perry to ensure that the items they wrote meet the standards discussed in class and that the items are aligned with the objectives selected for the student's unit. Although the feedback Perry provides is time-consuming to produce, it is almost the only way to ensure that each student has developed these professionally sophisticated assessment skills.

Because Western's teacher preparation faculty expect students to become more independent as they produce TWSs, it is crucial that these prospective teachers receive very specific feedback. In the preparation program where Perry worked, the prospective teachers produced two TWSs (the one described above was the first). The students received detailed feedback before developing their second TWS independently, with little, if any, support from the supervisor. In an interview, Perry said, "The only way to provide feedback efficiently is to work with students one-on-one. It is so time-consuming, but it is the only way to ensure that they understand. I can do a lot of [providing feedback] via writing, but face-to-face conversations are very important" (personal communication, July 28, 1998).

7. *Developing rubrics.* In aiding students who are learning to develop rubrics to assess pupils' performance tasks, Kyle first discusses the structure of such systems. She then assigns students daily living decisions to make, which can be made more easily with the help of a rubric. In small groups, students design rubrics for assessing tasks or products, such as making a bed, making a pizza, rating the best car to buy, or rating a car buyer. The design of rubrics in such a setting is usually enjoyable for the students, and they get to practice their understanding of rubric design while receiving feedback from their instructor and their peers.

8. *Lesson planning.* After providing prospective teachers with a format for writing daily lesson plans and discussing what each component requires, Susan Wood asks her students to prepare a plan for teaching their first lesson in a practicum setting. Students then meet with her to discuss the desired components of their plans. Though Wood describes the activity as time-consuming, it is clearly necessary if students are to learn the purpose and the art of developing articulated lesson plans, as they are expected to do in a TWS. Additionally, Wood asks how students have adapted their plans to account for the status and needs of their exceptional pupils.

9. *Combining selected TWS components.* The last examples in this section involve putting several TWS steps together before implementing those exact steps with children. When working with students preparing to teach children with severe disabilities, Bev Herzog selects a very sequential content area to teach them how to develop curricula. In a group of two to three, students are assigned

a case study that they are to use to decide what a child needs to learn to be placed in a regular classroom. The prospective teachers state specific objectives, propose additional assessments, and select teaching strategies.

In another activity (see chapter 9), Herzog's prospective teachers practice three TWS tasks for a topic general educators never experience. Using a case study, the students develop plans for an *environmental analysis* in which they assess a classroom context—what would the child be expected to do to function in this specific setting? The students design a method for assessing what typical pupils do in terms of daily activities: getting out books and paper before class, putting away their coats and backpacks, and picking up graded work from an assigned place in the classroom.

Second, once the prospective teachers know what the child needs to learn, they design a task analysis, laying out what the pupil with severe disabilities would need to learn to perform those expected tasks. That task analysis forms the focus for both instruction and assessment.

Third, using the information from the task analysis, the students array the scope and sequence of instruction and the methods and materials for assessment.

When they are done, the small group's environmental analysis, curriculum, and assessment are discussed in class; both Herzog and the classmates provide feedback. Because this activity is central to the job expectations for these prospective teachers, Herzog assigns four of these simulated activities to her students. A following course in the students' program sequence moves them into a practicum setting where they perform these exact same steps with real children in real schools. Herzog's students know they are practicing and receiving feedback on the exact same skills around which their performance will be evaluated the following term.

SMALL-GROUP PRACTICE ACTIVITIES FOR RELATED COMPONENTS OF A TWS

With the success of cooperative learning as a general instructional methodology, many teacher educators have become committed to activities where students work in small groups of three to six. Several Western faculty have devised practice activities where cooperative groups can try their hand at developing a TWS. This section presents a few of these activities.

1. *Work sample plans.* One of the most sophisticated activities for practicing and receiving feedback on the development of a TWS was designed by Jean Behrend (see box on pp. 292-293). Before the practice activity, Behrends presents and discusses thoroughly with her students a paper describing the components expected in a work sample. Students in groups of four to six are then assigned the task of developing a work sample. Following the development of their TWS, the prospective teachers develop a self-evaluation of their individual productiv-

Group Work Sample

Jean L. Behrend

> "Susan told me she heard that someone stayed up for two weeks straight finishing her work sample. Then she had to redo the whole thing because it didn't fit the criteria, which only the professor knew anyway."
>
> "No kidding! I heard the work sample is a total waste of time because it's just a hoop we have to jump through and has nothing to do with what teachers really do."

Western students, upon entering the professional course in a teacher education program, whisper to each other the horror stories and myths they have heard about the expectations for course work, field experiences, and *the work sample!* To alleviate some of the fears and to demonstrate that planning, teaching, and assessment are interconnected (and are what teachers do), I chose to use a group work sample as an assignment for a course on planning and assessment.

The course involved (a) introducing a component of curriculum, planning, or assessment; (b) engaging in reading, activities, and discussions about that component; (c) giving students a group assignment related to that component of the work sample; (d) critiquing the assignment within the group and across groups; and (e) making connections among the different components.

For example, we started with the development of curriculum. Using the question What should be taught? as the focus, we looked at both historical and current perspectives related to who or what influences the curriculum. Work sample groups were formed, and each group selected a topic the members would develop into a unit. The students used national, state, and district curriculum guides, adopted textbooks, and other resources, while making a web of what should be taught in their topic. We then shared and reviewed the webs and began to focus on the question What should be learned? Students revised the webs to reflect the important aspects they wanted to incorporate into their unit. They developed a rationale and conceptual overview to justify why the topic should be taught and what concepts and information pupils should learn.

From there we learned about writing goals and objectives, selecting activities, developing lesson plans, designing methods of assessment, and analyzing data from children. For each component, students expanded their work sample as part of the learning process.

After evaluating their own completed work sample, I met with each group to discuss what they had learned, what they thought they had done well, and what they might do differently. I asked questions and gave feedback to the group. The conferences were designed as a learning experience as well as an evaluation. By looking back over the whole process, students saw connections that they had not seen when they were working on individual components of the work sample. They often became aware of the lack of alignment between goals, objectives, activities, and assessment. This emerging awareness of the need for alignment was natural in their development and was addressed again in their next professional courses.

I found the group work sample to be beneficial for several reasons:

1. It demystified the work sample. Students told me they felt more prepared to do their own work sample after going through the process as a group.
2. It broke the work sample into manageable chunks. Working together allowed the students to break up the task and take on parts of it rather than the whole task alone.
3. It gave them an opportunity to discuss a common product with their peers. Sharing ideas helped raise questions, clarify misconceptions, and stimulate creativity.

box continues next page

4. Most important, it allowed students to see the connections among the components of planning and assessment. The planning and assessment cycle became more evident to the students with a concrete example they were creating themselves.

But I have also learned some things:

1. Assigning pieces of the work sample throughout the course alleviates the stress of doing it all in the last week. It also allows ongoing assessment of students' understanding of the planning process and incorporates their work as examples in the course.
2. The groups do not always work well together, and every group goes through growing pains. Talking about the group process and clarifying the goal of this assignment–to learn how to plan and assess rather than produce a beautiful product–generally reduces the stress level. Although most groups were able to deal with the conflicts themselves, occasionally I needed to intervene. Helping the group identify the areas of conflict (e.g., work habits, vision of the topic) and developing a common plan to deal with them has generally worked.
3. A group conference to evaluate the work sample and give feedback is essential. The first time I taught work samples this way, I gave the groups a choice of evaluation procedures. Those groups that chose to get only written feedback were less satisfied with the group process, felt they did not learn as much from the assignment, and were more anxious about the individual work sample.

For me, integrating the work sample into a planning and assessment course provided a framework for the planning process and eliminated the need to teach the work sample as something separate from the normal activities in which a teacher engages.

ity as group members as they learned about TWS construction. Finally, each group meets with Behrend to discuss their performance in designing a TWS. The directions Behrend gives her students about how to complete this practice TWS are shown in Figures 11.1 to 11.3.

In a conference setting, Behrend meets with her students to discuss the group's TWS. Instead of allowing whoever in the group wishes to to respond, she directs her questions to specific members to ensure that each group member is prepared to answer each of her questions. Because the students know about the group evaluation process, they spend time together before the conference ensuring that each member understands the structure and reasons for decisions about the development and structure of his or her TWS. These directed questions serve the students well, ensuring that they each have thoroughly learned about TWSs.

2. *Aligning TWS plans with state standards.* A series of lessons developed by Paula Bradfield-Kreider, described in the box on pages 298-299, allows students to practice putting TWSs together so the components align with district and state standards. The lessons help prospective teachers learn to align their units of instruction with curricular standards.

Figure 11.1. Directions for Developing a Group TWS

Fundamental questions:

- What should be learned?
- How should it be learned?
- How should it be assessed?

As a group, complete the following requirements:

A. What should be learned?

1. *Overview and rationale of instructional unit*. In the overview include
   - Title and grade or level
   - Description of the topic or focus, including conceptual overview
   - Reasons for teaching this unit
   - Related subject matter areas (how subject areas are related within the unit and/or how this unit fits into a larger plan)
   - Related Oregon state and school district goals
2. *Instructional plan goals*. List three or so overall instructional goals for this plan. Each lesson plan objective should relate to these overall goals.

B. How should it be learned?

3. *Lesson plans*. Outline 5 to 10 lessons for your unit. The outlines must include
   - The overall goal to which the lesson is related
   - Lesson objective(s)
   - Materials
   - A brief description of the activities
   - A brief assessment plan

   Each person in the group must write one more-detailed lesson plan. (There should be variety in the instructional strategies across the lessons.)

C. How should it be assessed?

4. *Assessment*. In the assessment section include
   - A description of at least three assessment procedures to pre- and posttest the class on the overall instructional goals. Be sure to include copies of the questions or tasks, scoring guides, and the administrative procedures.
   - At least eight mock student responses you have developed for each of the preassessment devices.
   - At least one set of quantified data from those simulated pupils in a cluster format.
   - Mock postassessment data from the same eight simulated pupils.
   - A brief discussion of the simulated results from at least three pupils. What did the children learn? What evidence supports your conclusions? You need to talk about more than the scores from the assessment tools.
   - A bibliography. List at least 10 sources you used to develop this instructional plan. There should be a variety of sources, including videos, kits, books, and magazines. Be sure to use standard bibliographic procedures.

3. *Plans for a mini-TWS.* Susan Wood developed a strategy that allows her students, before their first practicum, to develop plans for daily lessons in the framework of a mini-work sample. She uses a 6-step process:

1. The students are placed in groups of four, where all members are preparing to teach the same grade or subject. They select a TWS topic consistent with each of their interests.

Figure 11.2. Directions for Group Presentations and Self-Evaluation

1. Group presentation of work sample to college classmates
    a. Ten minutes allotted for the work sample presentation
    b. About 5 minutes for questions and feedback from class
2. Group evaluation of process and product (to be completed before group conference with Behrend)
    a. Comment on strengths and weaknesses in your unit and what you might change using the following criteria:
        i. Are all the components of the unit present?
        ii. Does the unit follow a logical organization, i.e., sequence, format, neatness, easy to read and follow?
        iii. Is it cohesive? Do the lessons fit with the goals and objectives? Do the lessons flow smoothly? Do the assessment devices measure your goals? Is this a unit you could use? Is it valuable for pupils to learn?
    b. Indicate your opinion as to the grade that should be assigned–Pass or Fail. Comments on the criteria should support your evaluation. Remember, the focus is on your ability to critically evaluate your unit rather than the completed product.
3. Self evaluation (to be turned in before the group conference)
    a. Comment on the following, in one page or less:
        i. Your contribution
        ii. Your growth. What did you learn?
        iii. The group's process
    b. Indicate the grade you believe you deserve for this course. Provide supporting evidence.
4. Group conference with Behrend
    a. Sign up for a time during finals week.
    b. I will ask questions about how you developed the unit. I am looking for your critical evaluation of the unit rather than the final product. I expect *all* members to participate in the discussion.

I am much more concerned with the content of your work sample than with how it looks. I do not care if different sections are printed on different printers or if they have different formats as long as I can follow the flow of the unit.

2. They are shown three to four lesson plan formats commonly used in TWSs and select the format they prefer.
3. The group works adjacent to other student groups in a classroom developing lesson plans they believe are necessary for their TWS topic. A faculty member is assigned to the classroom to provide guidance for the groups working in the classroom.
4. The group submits its goals, objectives, and lesson plans for the mini-work sample to receive feedback from Wood.
5. The group meets again to revise the plans using Wood's suggestions.
6. Each group member then develops his/her own generic, or boilerplate, lesson format.

Figure 11.3. Self-Evaluation Directions

Directions: The following questions may be used as a supplement to help you think about the strengths and weaknesses of your work sample.

1. *Format*
- Are all required components present? (Check against the outline for work samples provided in class.)
- Is the organization of the work sample easy to follow and read?
- Does the sequence make sense?
- Is the bibliography complete and in appropriate form?

2. *Overview, rationale, goals, and objectives*
- Are the unit goals clearly stated in terms of what pupils will learn?
- Are higher level thinking skills addressed?
- Are the unit goals aligned with district and state goals?
- Can the lesson plan objectives be tied to the unit goals?

3. *Assessment*
- Do the assessment techniques measure the unit goals or lesson objectives? Why or why not?
- Are the criteria for assessment clear?

4. *Lesson plans*
- Are the lessons sequenced in the best way, with one idea or concept leading into the next?
- Are the tasks and activities appropriate for the grade/age level and the unit goals?
- Is there a variety of lesson formats?
- Do the lessons represent a *collection of activities* or a *cohesive unit?* Why?
- Are there at least three lessons presented in a detailed format?
- Do the lesson plans include all required elements?
- Does the assessment plan include the method and criteria used?

5. *Self-reflection*

   The following questions should help focus your discussion.

   a. Self-reflection
      i. Contribution
         - What, specifically, did you contribute to the work sample?
         - How did your contributions help the process and the final product?
      ii. Growth
         - What did you learn about *planning* from this process?
         - What did you learn about *assessment* from this process?
         - What else did you learn?
      iii. Group process
         - How well did your group work together?
         - What negotiations needed to occur as you worked as a group?
         - How did you help it function smoothly?
         - What did you learn, in general, about working in a group?

   b. Grade for class

   As you decide what grade you deserve for the class, take into consideration the goals for the class, the course requirements and expectations, and the descriptors for each grade. Provide supporting evidence for the grade you believe you deserve.

With the selected lesson plan format clear in their minds, Wood believes her students can quickly prepare lessons as they become enmeshed in their first practicum setting.

Another faculty member, Sue Dauer, described how she uses mini-TWSs to overcome students' fears about lesson planning. Dauer believes the mini-TWS is useful because it focuses students' attention on learning how to construct a work sample rather than producing one for a grade: "Using mini-work samples was helpful because the students get very uptight about the product. They need time to focus on the process" (personal communication, July 22, 1998).

Dauer supports the view that practicing the construction of a TWS is most likely to be valuable when it can be done in a less stressful environment.

PRACTICE ACTIVITIES FOR THE TOTAL WORK SAMPLE FOR INDIVIDUALS

Several example teaching strategies have been discussed in earlier chapters:

- Jean Behrend asks students to study (using many of the TWS steps) the learning process of one child.
- Randall Engle assigns students the task of developing a smaller version of a TWS and implementing part of it in a microteaching setting.
- Christy Perry has students score a TWS using the assessment measures discussed in Table 3.5 before developing their own unit.

While all three of these strategies provide practice and feedback in developing a TWS, their focus is on introducing TWSM to students.

1. *Mini-work samples.* An activity several faculty undertake to help students learn about the components of a TWS is to analyze mini-work samples. Students are provided the analytic or formative measures from chapter 3 or the summative measures in Table 3.5 and instructed to rate a mini-work sample. Three such TWSs, shown as Appendixes G, H, and I, can be used for such a purpose. After students have rated a mini-work sample, they are likely to be much more secure in their understanding of a TWS.

2. *Cook High School.* At Western, only one activity provides a practice setting for students to employ all the TWS skills they have acquired before implementing them in the classroom. The practice activity is based on a computer simulation called Cook High School (commonly called "Cook High" by faculty and students). The activity has been used only by students seeking a license to teach in middle and high school. Gerald Girod and Robert Minato designed and programmed the activity, but Helen Woods has used the system in her instruction more than any other faculty member.

Making the Standards Come Alive With Culminating Activities

Paula Bradfield-Kreider

When first introduced to state and national standards, my teacher education students seem to undergo three developmental stages. During their first exposure, they generally treat standards as they do other pedagogical and conceptual issues concerning teaching and learning: They give them a cursory inspection and then can only superficially explain the purposes for curriculum standards. They cannot, however, use them in a meaningful manner. With additional work, students enter the second stage; they begin to use standards to develop unit or work sample goals and objectives. At this stage, students are able to teach a unit with more than one standard but have great difficulty integrating the standards into a thematic whole, a technique that is essential for making learning more relevant and meaningful for children. The third stage is the ability to weave standards together into a meaningful, motivating whole.

I use the following lesson plan and classroom activities to help students move toward the third stage of using standards—creating an authentic, standards-based TWS.

Lesson Plan Goal

The student will design a curriculum that is standards based, authentic, integrated, and focused on pupils' learning.

Objectives

- After an activity involving matching a series of grade-level topics with state standards, the student will develop an understanding of the depth and breadth of knowledge and skills children need to be taught to meet state and/or national standards by listing at least two standards (content and performance) embedded in a topic assigned by the instructor.*
- After an activity involving the alignment of existing lesson plans and activities found in curriculum kits with state standards, the student will be able to list at least two standards that align with a given lesson or activity.
- After an activity centered around modifying existing lesson plans and activities to align with state standards, the student will be able to modify at least one lesson or kit activity to clearly support at least two different state standards.
- After a brainstorming activity on authentic classroom projects, the student will be able to create culminating activities for units/work samples that are aligned with two or more state/national standards in different content areas and that focus on both content and performance.

Instruction: Three Activities and the Observed Effectiveness of Each

Time: Three class sessions

Purpose: To help prospective teachers develop a strategy for motivating their pupils to engage in useful, meaningful work while also helping the children to progress toward national and state standards and benchmarks.

Activity No. 1: The instructor and students brainstorm a list of topics that are taught at different grade levels and content areas in K-12 classrooms. Then, in grade-level groups, the students locate at least two standards (including both performance and content) that could be addressed by that topic.

Observation of Lesson Effectiveness: Based on observation of their work, most students show evidence of being able to insightfully compare and contrast topics with the content and performance standards. Their anecdotal comments indicate they have begun to see how standards can underpin all the work they do in the classroom. As one student commented, "It is just another way of looking at what we teach. I used to always teach activities without a clear idea of what I wanted the kids to get out of it."

box continues next page

Activity No. 2: This activity requires the modification of the students' own or other previously created lessons and/or activities to align with state standards for content and performance. Using lesson plans students bring to class from a variety of sources, we modify several lessons as a class to align them with both content and performance standards. We then create an integrated lesson by modifying the activity to align with at least two content standards in different areas. Students then modify one lesson in a small group and one of their own as an out of class assignment.

Observation of Lesson Effectiveness: By the end of this lesson, students have developed some ability to modify lessons to meet content and performance standards and to integrate those standards. As a bonus, students have begun to deconstruct the notion that they must "teach the established curriculum/text and add the standards on top of their other work." However, students still cannot design curriculum over time that is cohesive, authentic, and integrated. Their work focuses around discrete lessons or activities, resulting in a piecemeal, disconnected approach to curriculum design.

Activity No. 3: To create the conditions for the students to integrate curriculum, embed standards, and have the unit of instruction meaningful and motivating to students, I suggest prospective teachers use *culminating activity*. Culminating activities are authentic projects done at the end of the unit of instruction in which students use all the knowledge and skills learned during the unit. The authentic projects are holistic, integrated projects that have an audience other than the teacher. To illustrate, a class may be studying habitat and decide to convert a part of a vacant lot near the school back into wetlands. To do so, pupils must know the local habitat of the wetland, know the governmental procedures to make this sort of change, and be able to write and speak well to convince the city council. All such activities are to be aligned to the content and performance standards. To prepare education majors to do so, they first brainstorm a variety of projects in small groups that they believe would be intriguing for their pupils and that could have an audience other than just their cooperating teachers. Next, they align the project outcomes with two or three of the most relevant state standards. Third, they begin to analyze the knowledge and skills children need to have to complete the final project (and that are also aligned with the standards). As a major assignment, students then create their own mini TWS, which includes a culminating activity. If they have a classroom, they are to design the unit to be used with their own pupils. If not, they are to find an audience, whether it is the web or a teacher who would like to implement a unit on that topic.

Observation of Lesson Effectiveness: After completing these activities, most students are able to use standards in curriculum design and TWSM in a more meaningful, natural way. A side benefit is that the units they create are meaningful and capture children's interest. Rather than being a teacher-driven series of lessons that are loosely related and appear to have no purpose, they are well structured units.

Content and performance standards are goals for public education in Oregon. Content standards describe academic knowledge children are to acquire, while performance standards describe the degree of knowledge proficiency the learner will need to demonstrate to meet the content standard.

Cook High was designed to be used by prospective teachers as they learn skills involved in constructing a TWS. Once TWSM processes have been presented and connections made regarding ideas such as selecting important topics, alignment, and reflection, Cook High is used to allow students to practice their skills.

In materials given to students, Cook High is described as a medium-sized high school in a mid-Willamette Valley community in Oregon.[2] The school contains 800 pupils in Grades 9 to 12. The ethnic composition of the school mirrors, proportionally, that of the state: A majority are White from lower and middle-income families. Other racial and ethnic groups at Cook High include a fairly large Hispanic population with smaller numbers of African American, Native American, and Asian children. The pupils entering Cook High, except for transfers, come from Kleen Middle School. The parents and guardians typically hold jobs in agriculture or business, although a few work for a nearby regional state college. Most pupils come from two-parent families.

The pupils whom the Western students will "teach" come only from the ninth grade. (This restriction provided the developers of the simulation the advantage that students seeking a middle level authorization could "teach" ninth graders as well.)

When students log on to the computer, they are asked which of the following subjects they wish to "teach" in their practicum experience at Cook High:

Required courses

- Health
- Language arts
- Mathematics (general or algebra)
- Music (band or chorus)
- Physical education
- Science (biology or general)
- Social science (U.S. history or western civilization)

Electives

- Art
- Educational media
- French
- Spanish

The courses available parallel the licensure options available to secondary and middle education candidates at Western.

When they first log on to the Cook High program, students request that the computer randomly assign them 20 pupils as their class. Throughout the duration of the student's work with Cook High, the pupils assigned are that person's class members; that is, the computer memory retains the teacher education student's name, the requested teaching assignment, and the names of the pupils assigned to that person's class. The pupils are drawn from a base of 51 pupils in the computer's memory. For each pupil within the database, fairly thorough cumulative records are available for the students' inspection. The records include information such as

- Child's name, gender, current address, birthplace, date of birth
- Father's name and occupation
- Mother's name and occupation

- First language spoken at home
- Seventh-grade record:
  Classes
  Grades
  Attendance records
  Intramural activities
  Teachers' ratings of in-class behaviors
  Comments on general health and disabilities
  Comments on problems, personality traits, and parental interactions
- Eighth-grade record:
  All of the above, plus raw scores, national stanine scores, and national percentile scores for the eighth-grade California Achievement Test

After the students have identified what subjects they wish to teach, have had a group of pupils assigned to them, and have read the cumulative records for each child, they are cued to provide to the computer descriptions of their TWS. Students are asked to describe the characteristics of the pretest they will administer to their pupils:

- The number of items or criteria (as in a performance assessment) to be employed. Students can include a variety of test items in one test—e.g, five multiple choice, four true-false, six matching, two essays (requiring use of a rubric)
- The type of assessment being used—a product test, a performance test, or both
- What kind of test is being used—readiness, pretest, practice, or posttest
- The number of points the student wishes to assign to each item or criterion in a range from 1 to 100
- The domain source for each item being used—cognitive, attitudinal, psychomotor
- The domain level for each item

Once the student has described and checked for accuracy the type of test and items being used, the pretest is "administered" to the pupils. The computer previously had been given parameters as to how well each pupil would likely perform in each academic area, on each kind of test, and at each domain level.[3] Using the attendance records found in the cumulative records, the computer is programmed to predict who will be present and absent the day of the pretest and then prints out raw scores for each child who was in class.

Using plans developed for their TWS and pretest data garnered from the computer, the student is now ready to describe for the computer how the pupils are to be taught. The student can choose from 12 different strategies and can assign time percentages to each strategy for a unit of instruction. Using 5% increments, the student could decide, for example, to teach the TWS using 30% "teacher presentation," 15% silent reading, 50% seat work, and 5% transitions.[4] The computer has stored in its memory parameters descriptions of how well each pupil learns under the use of each instructional strategy. For example, if a pupil learns poorly from seat work, the more seat work a prospective teacher uses, the less the pupil's learning gain will be. In fact, a decrease may be noted if an unfavorable strategy for a pupil is used quite frequently.

The amount of time devoted to each segment of a TWS can vary. A student might decide that his/her TWS will be bound by a pretest and a posttest. In this case, after describing the instructional strategy to be used, the teacher education student is prompted to describe his/her posttest to the computer and then receive the summative results for each pupil.

Other students, however, may choose to "teach" and then administer a practice test to determine how effective their instruction has been. They can instruct the computer to administer a practice test (after they have described it), receive pupil performance data, and then adapt their instruction. Students can administer as many practice or formative tests and adapt their instruction as many times as they choose.

Once the final assessment has been administered and pupils' scores received from the computer, the student is finished with Cook High as an instructional simulation. Students prepare their reports on the implementation of their TWS just as they do for the one(s) they develop later in their student teaching experience.

Cook High provides several advantages to students and faculty in a teacher preparation program. It allows faculty to ask students to administer tests, think about how to adjust instruction, develop hypotheses about children's learning needs, develop a record-keeping system, compile and interpret data, and reflect upon their "teaching" performance. Because of the way the computer treats data for individual pupils, students are able to inquire about the performance of pupils associated with variables such as domain type, domain level, item type, instructional strategy, and attendance pattern. Students are too likely to overlook such questions when they student teach, but if they have practiced that kind of analysis in their Cook High experience, they are more likely to inquire about those variables.[5]

This simulation is done in a safe environment where novice teachers will not hurt children, embarrass themselves or their institution, or take up valuable university classroom time teaching lessons to their peers. Cook High is an inexpensive and humane system to help students practice and receive feedback.

CASE STUDIES

A commonly used strategy to provide students opportunities to practice their TWS skills is case studies. The box on pages 304-305 explains how one Western faculty member, Steve Bigaj, uses cases in his instruction. This last part of the chapter discusses the general use of case studies as a setting for practice and feedback.

In general, faculty who use case studies in teaching about TWSs employ them for practice in analyzing pupils' behavior or data or when deciding what steps to take in selecting succeeding goals or instructional or assessment strategies. For those purposes, a case is typically assigned to a small group of students in the college classroom to use in determining next steps in an instructional sequence. Students tend to consider case instruction as enjoyable, approaching realism, and facilitating valuable feedback in shaping their analytic skills.

Case studies carry two other advantages that may not be readily apparent. First, in some teacher preparation programs, students come to their college classes having widely different experiential backgrounds with children. This is most obvious at Western in special education programs, where some students are practicing teachers with several years of successful experience, while others have yet to set foot in a classroom as a teacher. Varying the complexity (number of variables, details provided) of the case studies takes into account the differing levels of experience. In general, beginners need more detail and fewer variables to confront, while veterans need less detail (they fill in from their backgrounds) and more variables (to make it seem realistic and to allow them to choose which ones they must focus on). Case studies allow faculty members to extend the learning for all their students while not frustrating those at either level.

A second advantage of case studies is that one can adjust the amount of detail provided to ask not only what instruction might be needed but also what information is missing. For example, students can be encouraged to focus on the utility of assessment in a case study to help better answer questions about children. Case studies are particularly useful in providing practice and feedback regarding one's analytic skills. They can also be adapted to different levels of experience.

SUMMARY

The purpose of practice activities is to encourage students to transfer their skills and provide a structure for student feedback. Because of the complexity of TWSs and the varying contexts in which students will find themselves as teachers, faculty must provide practice and feedback if there is any hope transfer will occur. All the concepts associated with problem solving—concept generalization, learning set, discrimination learning, response set, stimulus generalization—indicate that transferring one's skills in constructing and implementing a TWS from one setting to another is unlikely when too little practice and feedback occur. That last statement may explain why students so often report in their next class or practicum, "No, we never studied that." Students just may not see the similarity between what was taught and what they are expected to implement.

Learning About TWSs in Cooperative Learning Groups

Steve Bigaj

Teaching TWSM through cooperative learning groups is a creative and effective approach. By structuring their learning in this fashion, prospective teachers experience the importance of sharing information with one another and begin the process of collaborating with colleagues to learn new concepts and information.

TWS Formats for Special Education

Student teachers in the special education programs at Western have a variety of work sample formats to use when working with children with disabilities. All of these formats include sections on individualized education plan goals and objectives, instructional plans, data analysis and display, and teacher self-evaluation. These work sample formats include

- *Academic work samples*–used when teaching reading, writing, math, spelling, or other academic skills
- *Functional work samples*–used when teaching a daily living routine such as an arrival routine, dressing, self-feeding, bus travel, or vocational skills
- *Unit work samples*–used when teaching a unit of information, such as a voting unit or resume writing
- *Social/behavioral* work samples–used when teaching appropriate behavior to a pupil who demonstrates challenging behaviors in a variety of social contexts
- *Collaborative work samples*–used when teaching in collaboration with regular classroom teachers in an inclusive setting

Cooperative Learning

Teacher education students need to be introduced to the major components of the different work sample format. They also need to know when it is appropriate to use one format instead of the other. To effectively and efficiently teach about these different formats, I have used cooperative learning techniques (Johnson, Johnson, & Johnson-Holubeck, 1993). A critical skill for the special educator is the ability to collaborate effectively with other professionals, pupils, and families. By using these techniques to teach about TWSM, I am modeling a procedure that students can use with children with disabilities, and I am teaching them how to work collaboratively with their colleagues.

Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991) emphasize the benefits of using cooperative learning with adult groups. They found through their research that adult cooperation promotes achievement, positive interpersonal relationships, social support, and positive self-esteem. Additionally, cooperative learning has been demonstrated to be effective in promoting positive social and academic outcomes for children with and without disabilities in K-12 education. It has also been successfully applied with college students.

The basic elements of the cooperative learning model as espoused by Johnson, Johnson, and Johnson-Holobeck (1993) include positive interdependence, face-to-face interaction, individual accountability, interpersonal and small-group skills, and group processing.

Example

The following example shows how I use the cooperative learning "jigsaw" procedure to introduce student teachers to the work sample formats used in the special education preparation program at Western. The jigsaw procedure, an alternative to traditional lectures, can be used when one has information to communicate to students. The jigsaw activity is a way to create resource interdependence, as every group member is responsible for teaching and understanding one work sample format. I have found the following set of activities effective when using the jigsaw procedure.

1. *Cooperative groups*. Arrange the class into groups of five. Distribute a set of materials describing each of the five work sample formats. Assign each member in a group to be the expert on one of the five sample formats and ensure they have the materials describing their selected work sample format.

2. *Preparation pairs*. Assign students the cooperative task of meeting with someone else in the class who is a member of another learning group and who has the same work sample format materials. Complete the following two tasks:
   - Learn and become an expert on the work sample format materials
   - Plan how to teach the material to the other members of the group

3. *Practice pairs*. Assign students the cooperative task of meeting with someone else in the class who is a member of another learning group and who has learned the same work sample material. Share ideas as to how the material may best be taught. These practice pairs review what each plans to teach. They can then incorporate the best ideas from the other's presentation.

4. *Cooperative groups–II*. Have students return to their original cooperative groups and assign them the following tasks:
   - Each group member teaches the work sample format that he or she has prepared; others are responsible for learning the material that is being taught by their group members.
   - *Evaluation*. Assess the students' degree of mastery of all the material. Reward the groups where each member reaches the desired outcome.
   - *Discussion of the group process*. Ask each group how well they worked together and what they would change if they were to work in a group again.

The jigsaw is one of several cooperative learning procedures that can be used to teach about work sample methodology (Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 1991). Using cooperative learning when teaching about work samples helps to engage learners in the process of learning about these new TWS concepts and information.

Providing practice and feedback for prospective teachers learning about TWS is undeniably an expensive process, particularly in terms of faculty time. But Christy Perry found that such effort is not without a concrete benefit for faculty:

> The most common error [among our students] we ran across was nonalignment of goals, objectives, and assessment. But the students were in their first term so that was not unexpected. When we got to the second term and worked further on TWSs, it was a breeze, because we had done so much with them the first term. (personal communication, July 28, 1998)

Unless practice and feedback occur, it is likely that all that has been written in this handbook may lack value to students.

NOTES

1. Program continuance decisions are made daily in many parts of the collegiate setting. Students are told after writing two or three essays they will not be able to successfully complete a writing course. Students are told they do not play the assigned pieces well enough to participate in the concert band. Faculty in all areas of the collegiate curriculum regularly decide whether a student is likely to succeed in the rest of a course or program when the decision is based on the student's performance in the course. Practice activities are often used to allow faculty to decide about program continuation. The reader may wish to investigate whether one or more of the practice activities described in this chapter might be used locally in such a fashion.
2. The content of the next few pages comes from a presentation Helen Woods has developed for use in describing Cook High School to various local, regional, national, and international groups.
3. A "random performance" factor is also built into the computer as it states raw scores for each pupil. Periodically, just as in real classrooms, a pupil's test score comes out unusually high or usually low. The student is then left to try to determine what may have happened—just as will happen to them when they face a classroom of real children.
4. The instructional categories were adapted from Berliner, 1983.
5. At the time this chapter was written, Cook High was being substantially redesigned to become Cook School District. As such, it will include "pupils" from elementary, middle, and secondary schools to allow all Western students, including those in special education, an opportunity to practice their TWS skills.

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Chapter 12

Successfully Supervising Students Implementing Teacher Work Samples

by E. Michelle Pardew, Western Oregon University

Goals for Teacher Educators

After reading this chapter, teacher educators will acquire an array of ways to

- Introduce TWSM expectations to student teachers.
- Explain TWSM procedures and supervisory expectations to cooperating teachers.
- Take action to prevent or counter misunderstandings about TWSM in a practicum .
- Provide summative feedback to student teachers about the quality of their TWSs.

The supervision and evaluation of teacher work samples (TWSs) rests on a foundation of successful teacher preparation instruction such as that discussed in the previous chapters of this book. If prospective teachers have developed all the TWS skills called for in the preceding chapters, then supervision will be efficient and enjoyable. If not, remediation must occur. The level of supervisory intensity is likely determined by the strength of the TWS foundation the prospective teacher has acquired.

Teacher educators should employ a repertoire of evaluation and observational tools as they supervise students who are building their TWS skills. The supervisory process requires a continual review of TWS components to reinforce skills successfully acquired and to evaluate professional demonstrations. When the TWS foundation is solid, the supervision experience is usually positive. When there are flaws—whether the TWS foundation is missing building blocks, has severe cracks in those blocks, or a lack of connectedness occurs among the blocks—then the practicum experience requires closer supervision.[1]

At this writing, the Western undergraduate professional teacher training programs have just completed a major redesign. Undergraduate students now spend four terms completing the requirements for licensure at two authorization levels. Oregon's four levels of authorization include early childhood, elementary, middle school, and high school. In its new programs, Western's students spend more time in field experience. By the time they reach their fourth and final term of full-time student teaching, Western's teacher preparation students have practiced the development of TWSs both in their courses and in the field.

In the College of Education at Western, student teaching is available all three academic terms. In both general and special education, students are in the practicum sites throughout their entire professional training program. Successful completion of all program requirements, including those associated with TWSs, results in Western's recommending to Oregon's teacher licensing commission that the student be granted a license and/or new authorization.

SUPERVISORY PROCESSES

Supervision of student teaching is a process of letting go. The closest supervision of students typically takes place during initial field experiences—those preceding student teaching. But the goal of preparation programs is to provide diminishing support as the prospective teacher reaches full-time responsibility during the final practicum. University supervisors often differ on what specific actions constitute letting go, although most agree they are unwilling to abandon a student teacher without a signal that he or she is ready to perform independently.

Many professional proficiencies must be addressed in student teaching in addition to those imbedded in creating and implementing a TWS. This chapter focuses on the supervision of student teachers in terms of the proficiencies related to teacher work sampling. However, faculty will come to realize that the successful production of a TWS occurs in the context of other objectives the prospective teacher must meet. To maintain the focus of the handbook, this chapter addresses only supervision of the development and implementation of a TWS.

Guiding this discussion of the process of supervision for those developing and implementing a TWS are four key recommendations:

- Introduce student teaching TWS requirements at the beginning of the term.
- Introduce TWS requirements to cooperating teachers before or during the first week of student teaching.
- Provide supervisory activities to avoid breakdowns and confusion.
- Evaluate TWS procedures and products at the completion of student teaching.

The following sections discuss these four recommendations. Specific strategies are provided to help accomplish those suggestions.

Introducing TWS Requirements at the Beginning of Student Teaching

Prospective teachers as well as their supervisors know that a quick start in developing a TWS is valuable. But attaining that quick start depends on clarifying TWS tasks, which in turn depends on the structure of the teacher preparation program. In the latter case, it would be unfortunate but not unheard of if students were asked to develop work samples with limited prior instruction regarding TWS components. In such an instance, students would need a great

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deal of supervisory support and instruction. The following sections contain suggestions gathered from Western Oregon faculty for helping students quickly learn about the expectations for their work samples.

Providing Regular Initial Information to Cohorts

Student teachers need immediate and regular information about the expectations for their experience. Western's College of Education faculty supervising student teachers have found it most effective to work with their cohort of students in a weekly seminar. These meetings are usually held on campus, though some occur at the practicum site. Group meetings allow supervisors to establish clear expectations for all their student teachers at one time and to provide the cohort members an opportunity to support and collaborate with each other as the term progresses.

Handbooks

One or more of the initial student teaching seminars should begin with a review of the responsibilities of the student teacher, the cooperating teacher, and the university supervisor. At Western, those responsibilities are outlined in the student handbook and in *A Guide to Mentoring Western Student Teachers* (see Appendix J for a sample of items included in the guide). It is important to emphasize to the students that they are guests in the school and that the cooperating teacher has ultimate responsibility for the pupils. Students at Western are given the student handbook detailing expectations associated with practicum experiences at the beginning of their professional teacher training program. The handbook clarifies the corresponding course work as well as the field experiences throughout the four terms. The handbook also contains copies of the forms used to evaluate students' performances and products, including those associated with TWSs. Once they reach their final field experience, a review (as opposed to an introduction or explanation) of practicum requirements during a seminar is all students typically need.

Calendars

Dates should be set right away for holding an initial conference with the cooperating teacher to go over requirements of the practicum or student teaching and to acquaint the cooperating teacher with *A Guide to Mentoring Western Student Teachers*. Discussion of the purposes and procedures associated with TWSs is a central topic in these conferences. It is recommended the conferences be held with the student and cooperating teacher(s) at the end of the preceding term, if at all possible. Such an early meeting further facilitates a clear and immediate start for all parties.

Cohorts as Support Groups

When prospective teachers are organized into seminar cohort groups, they can discuss issues affecting them as student teachers and share and learn from one another. Early seminars should be devoted to work sample development and discussion. Student teachers can provide peer review and support in solving problems that might be faced in developing or implementing their work samples. Prospective teachers view information about how other students collect data or explain their results as beneficial. In addition to accommodating discussion of TWSs, seminars are a time for student teachers to share their concerns and frustrations and work through the inevitable barriers to success. The opportunity to just talk about their war stories and to establish collegiality among those experiencing the same problems seems to be important to most student teachers.

Other Seminar Topics

Seminar meetings can also be planned to discuss how to complete the application process for licensure, how to set up a placement file and resume, how to carry out job interviews, how to select entries, including TWSs, for a portfolio, and other topics related to professional development. It is highly recommended that a final meeting date be set with individual student teachers to go through their notebook or portfolio as a final check before the supervisor completes a thorough evaluation of TWSs and other required products.

Visual Aids in Discussing Expectations for the TWS

Faculty at Western have found a number of visual aids helpful in reviewing the process of TWS development during the seminar. Given the variability in instructional emphases about TWSs candidates may have experienced, it is important for student teaching supervisors to be clear about their expectations for this component of the prospective teacher's professional evaluation. Gwenda Rice refers her students to the work sample flow chart in Figure 12.1 as a visual aid to understanding the process and the core ingredients for TWS. This chart also serves as an easy checklist for tracking the process of TWS development. Jacqueline Kyle uses the handout "Walking Through Work Sample Development and Implementation" (Appendix K) as a guide for discussing TWS development and implementation.

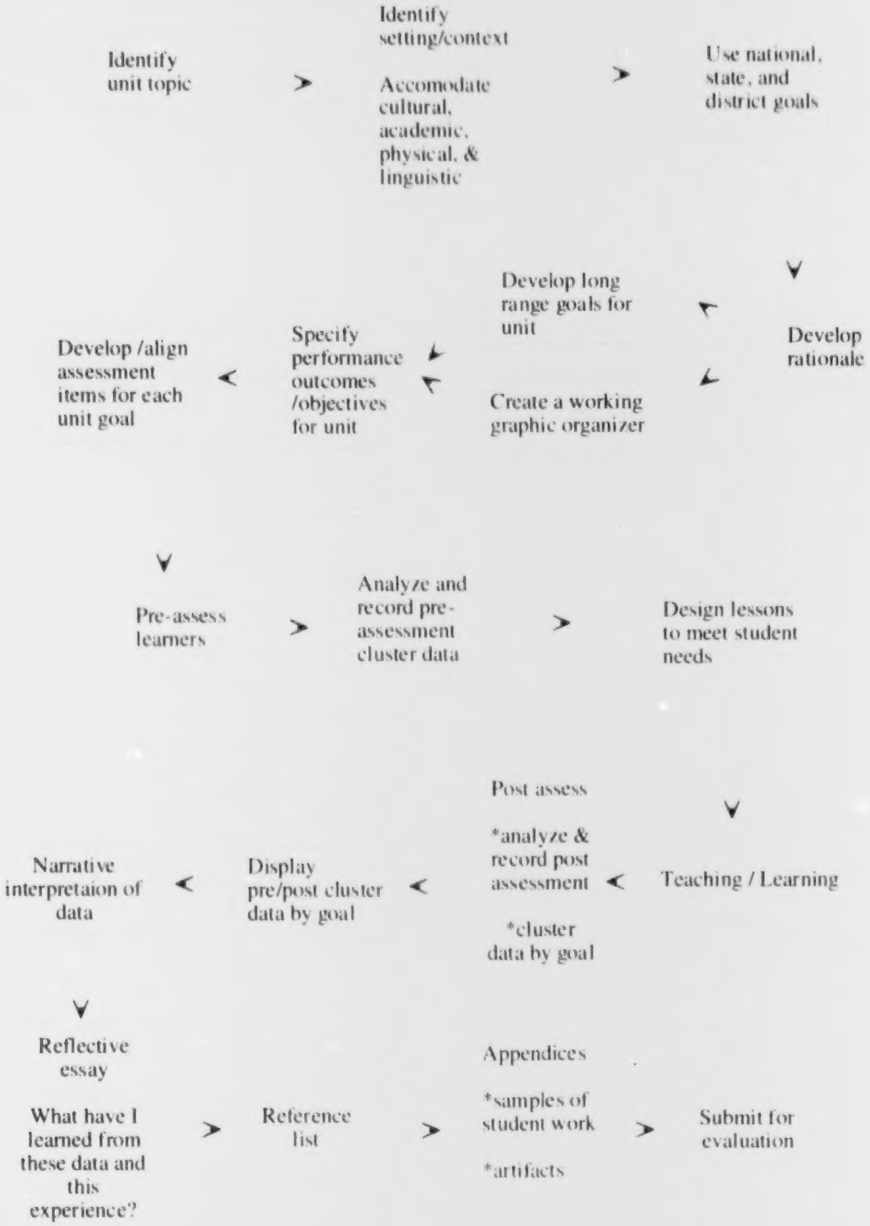
Explaining the TWS Report

Students have an advantage if they are shown an overview of what is to be included in their final TWS. At Western, student teachers are required to establish a TWS notebook with dividers. Appendix L includes some examples of notebook content, and Appendix M includes guidelines for work samples. It is important for student teachers to have a written outline of TWS notebook contents and a time line for product completion as they begin developing the document that will play such a central role in their application to be recommended for a license.

Preparing Goals and Objectives

A difficult task for most student teachers is developing TWS outcomes. Seminar meetings can also provide a review of TWS instruction that has occurred in earlier courses and practica regarding the selection and statement of goals and objectives. These seminar reviews provide an opportunity for students to again examine common curricular goals and content standards and to define appro-

Figure 12.1. Work Sample Flow Chart


Identify unit topic
Identify setting/context
Accomodate cultural, academic, physical, & linguistic
Use national, state, and district goals
Develop rationale
Develop long range goals for unit
Create a working graphic organizer
Specify performance outcomes /objectives for unit
Develop /align assessment items for each unit goal
Pre-assess learners
Analyze and record pre-assessment cluster data
Design lessons to meet student needs
Teaching / Learning
Post assess
*analyze & record post assessment
*cluster data by goal
Display pre/post cluster data by goal
Narrative interpretaion of data
Reflective essay
What have I learned from these data and this experience?
Reference list
Appendices
*samples of student work
*artifacts
Submit for evaluation

priate objectives at the beginning of their student teaching placement. Through structured activities such as those in Appendixes N and O, student teachers can compare how their created goals and outcomes fit with appropriate benchmarks. Then as they work through their own TWS design, they can recall these group activities and apply the knowledge to immediate practice.

Gwenda Rice reports the most difficult part of supervising students doing work samples is helping them to identify their goals and objectives. Once the outcomes are identified, the rest of the work sample elements usually flow smoothly. When students succeed in identifying their unit objectives early in student teaching, they stay on target and produce and implement a work sample that usually works well. Clearly, getting started immediately on TWS outcome development paves the way for a stronger final product.

RECOMMENDED INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITIES FOR COOPERATING TEACHERS

Initial Meeting With the Cooperating Teacher

It is important to begin the first meeting with the cooperating teacher and the student teacher with a clear view of what will occur during the term. Beverly

Figure 12.2. Initial Conference With Cooperating Teacher(s) and Student

Location of meeting: Date:
Names of those present at meeting: Student: ____________________
Cooperating teacher: ____________
Cooperating teacher: ____________
Western supervisor: ____________
Other: ____________________

____Do cooperating teachers have *A Guide to Mentoring Western Student Teachers*?
____Do cooperating teachers have Request for Staff Rates form?
____Distribute and explain Cooperating Site Supervisor Data form.
____Distribute and walk through the following:
  ____Appropriate syllabus and recommended schedule to complete products
  ____Student teaching daily schedule, school holidays, notification of absence
  ____School Improvement Project description
  ____Student teaching Notebook of Products form
  ____Student teaching Competency Evaluation form
  ____Appropriate work sample evaluation forms:
    ____Functional work sample form (K)
    ____Academic work sample form (HL)
    ____Behavioral work sample form (L)
    ____Assessment report evaluation form (M)
    ____Inclusion plan evaluation form (Q)
  ____Observation and feedback forms:
    ____Observation of individual student form (E)
    ____Observation of group instruction form (F)
    ____Feedback on Facilitation of Meeting
    ____Feedback on observation during full-time responsibility form (P)
  ____Other materials as appropriate (list):
    ____
    ____
  ____Set date for midterm evaluation meeting.
  ____Set date for final evaluation meeting.
  ____Opportunity for questions or comments (list on back).

Herzog, of Western's Division of Special Education, has created a collection of organizers and evaluation forms to guide supervisory activities and product development by student teachers. Herzog designed a checklist to serve as an agenda for this first meeting between the student teacher and the cooperating teacher (Figure 12.2). The checklist also serves as a guide for the student teacher's responsibilities. At this meeting, the student is also given a summary sheet for assignments to establish target dates and completion dates (Figure 12.3). These two forms make clear at the outset each member's responsibilities and identify when tasks need to be completed. During this meeting, dates are set for mid-term and final conferences as well as for observation visits (Figure 12.4). Though it might be impossible for the players to completely list the dates at a first meeting, it is recommended that possible dates be discussed and that a time be chosen to meet and select the dates called for in Figure 12.4.

Support Materials for the Cooperating Teacher

All cooperating teachers hosting Western student teachers receive a copy of a *Guide to Mentoring Western Student Teachers*. The guide is designed to acquaint cooperating teachers with the process of supervising Western teachers and to answer their specific questions. The guide discusses

- Time lines and schedules for field experiences and student teaching
- Professional core courses and related field experiences
- Personnel roles and responsibilities
  - Desired characteristics of cooperating teachers
  - Roles and responsibilities of district administrators and coordinators
  - Roles and responsibilities of cooperating teachers
  - Roles and responsibilities of Western student teachers
  - Roles and responsibilities of university supervisors
  - Opportunities for professional development training for cooperating teachers
- How to deal with concerns
- Teacher work sample methodology processes and products
- Oregon teaching license information

Helping Cooperating Teachers Guide TWS Development

It is important to assist cooperating teachers in understanding TWSs and to assure them that the lessons designed for the work sample will fit into their curriculum. During her first site visit to a practicum setting, Kyle meets with the student teacher, cooperating teacher, and, ideally, the principal. She goes over the *Guide to Mentoring Western Student Teachers*, walks through the section on TWSs, and invites them to prepare and ask questions during her next visit. For the reticent cooperating teacher, Kyle suggests, when appropriate, that the student teacher train the cooperating teacher on TWSs. By reading through the TWS description in the guide with the cooperating teacher, the student teacher also obtains a clearer understanding of the expectations ("when you teach something, you learn it"). Indicating to seminar student teachers that they may be asked to teach their cooperating teachers about TWSs often leads to productive

Figure 12.3. Student Teaching Assignments Summary

	Target Date	Completion Date	Comments
Supervisor folder			
Assessment project			
Choose student			
Formal tests			
Informal tests			
Classroom observation			
Diagnostic summary (optional)			
Individual instruction			
Choose student			
Prescriptive program			
Lesson plans			
Implement			
Small group			
Choose			
Take over			
Weekly plans			
Self-evaluations			
#1			
#2			
#3			
Pupil performance indicators			
For individual			
For group			
Project			
Selected			
Planned			
Implemented			
IEP			
Observation			
District form completed			
Conference held			
Take-over week			
Student teaching notebook			

Figure 12.4. Field Placement Supervision Schedule

Term: ________ Year: ________

Student: ______________________________ Phone: ________________

College supervisor: ____________________ Phone: ________________

Site supervisor: ______________________ Phone: ________________

School or agency: ____

Location: ____

Type of field placement (check one):

Practicum I _____ Practicum II _____ Practicum III _____

Other _____ (Describe) _________________________________

Schedule for student to be on site: ____________________________

Conference dates and times:

Initial conference: ____________________

Midterm conference: ____________________

Final conference: ____________________

Observation dates and times:

Observation #1: ____________________

Observation #2: ____________________

Observation #3: ____________________

Other contacts (Date and note purpose on back of this sheet):

questions and discussion. Students have an immediate need to review and clarify their knowledge of the methodology associated with work samples.

Group Instruction of Cooperating Teachers

A recommended practice for training a district's or school's cooperating teachers about TWSs is to conduct the instruction on site. Christy Perry and Amanda Woods McConney conduct an on-site overview of TWSs for cooperating teachers and point out how work samples provide instruction that will fit into the cooperating teacher's plan. They describe TWSs as an extension of the public school curriculum. Perry and McConney have found it important to show cooperating teachers how the TWS aligns with common curricular goals, content standards, benchmarks, and performance standards and how the TWS is an important facilitator of standards-based instruction. As cooperating teachers begin to understand TWSs, they can help one another as questions arise about how best to help their student teachers. Having heard the same presentation about TWSs facilitates their ability to aid one another.

Dealing With Reluctant Cooperating Teachers

In terms of cooperating teachers who may be hesitant about working with students around the creation of work samples, Paul Yeiter has noticed a shift. For example, Western faculty now emphasize that completing a TWS is a requirement of Oregon's teacher licensing agency for student teachers and TWSs may not have been an expectation when the cooperating teachers were licensed. After learning of the importance to the student of completing a TWS, many cooperating teachers become more supportive. TWS requirements are not viewed as a new, additional set of requirements instigated by university personnel. An additional tack employed by several Western faculty is to point out that knowledge of TWS methodology is important to veteran educators, as Oregon teachers seeking advanced or continuing licensure must now also complete a TWS. In some local districts, cooperating teachers request training on TWS, because they now must create them for continued licensure.

Final Evaluation of Participation in the Field Experience

Western faculty supervisors provide a packet of materials for the student teacher to evaluate the university supervisor and the cooperating teacher, the cooperating teacher to evaluate the university supervisor, and the university supervisor to evaluate the cooperating teacher. The completed surveys are returned to Western's Field Services Officers unsigned. The surveys provide data for evaluation of the College of Education supervision processes from the views of three different people. Appendix P contains an example of the evaluation forms used to assess student teaching supervisors. Those forms, completed at the end of student teaching, give valuable feedback on the quality of supervision, the communication regarding TWSs, and the effectiveness of the guidance from the cooperating teacher. These data allow the College of Education to review supervision across all programs and target areas for improvement, and they help meet National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education standards for program evaluation.

SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES TO AVOID BREAKDOWN AND CONFUSION

The schedules and activities described in many of the previous sections are designed to allow students to get an immediate start on their field experience. While Western Oregon's recommended university supervisor visitation schedule is to observe student teachers six times per term, many faculty members exceed that standard. Western faculty member Jacqueline Kyle, for example, visits her student teachers once a week. The regularity of the visits usually depends on how well the student teacher is meeting the recommended time lines and competencies. This section describes activities university supervisors can take to help clarify for all concerned the procedures expected as candidates develop TWSs during student teaching.

Early Visits With the Student–TWS Calendar

During her second site visit of the term, Kyle meets with the student teacher and ensures that he or she understands TWS requirements. She specifically asks about the prospective teacher's plan for developing the work sample and provides a blank calendar for the student to state when each step of the TWS will be accomplished. By assigning a completion date for each step of the work sample flow chart (Figure 12.1), students know whether their plan is feasible. Students report they find this activity quite helpful in anticipating how long steps will take.

Early Visits With the Student–TWS Plans

Gwenda Rice schedules her first visit with her social science student teachers as a planning session for the quarter and establishes the structure of activities and due dates for the rest of the term. They thoroughly discuss TWS plans and set dates for implementation. For the next meeting with the student teacher, Rice likes to meet in a different location away from the classroom. At that meeting, Rice goes over the student teacher's TWS drafts and leads the student teacher through a discussion of the work sample flow chart. First, they look at the goals the student has chosen, discuss where the goals came from, and determine whether the student's unit outcomes are aligned with state standards for literacy goals (writing, speaking, and reading). Then they look at the student's objectives and analyze whether they specifically address all the goals, are written to address pupils' individual learning styles, and reflect adaptations for children who speak English as a second language or who have special needs and an individualized education plan (IEP). Next, they discuss how the student teacher will complete the pre- and postassessment for the TWS. Rice often provides measurement examples for this area that go beyond typical pre- and postassessment. She also commonly gives the student teacher specific examples for the verb in an objective and potential pupil products that aim for higher level skills.

Incorporating Benchmarks in TWS Plans

One of the occasionally troublesome tasks for candidates is to decide how to incorporate state curriculum benchmarks in their TWSs. Recently, Rice supervised two student teachers who incorporated the Oregon state goals and benchmarks into their TWSs. For the area of social studies, one student teacher also incorporated the state's eighth-grade benchmarks for reading, while the other student teacher included benchmarks for language arts. By looking at the children's previous standardized scores on these benchmarks, the student teachers each had a baseline from the previous spring for their pupils. They taught the unit, providing instructional tasks and measures (using content area scoring guides). After they delivered their TWS units of instruction, they assessed the students over the same performance standards and determined change. In addition, the students collected information around the benchmarks and demonstrated how the social studies curriculum content also served the reading and language arts standards.

One student teacher who combined social studies and language arts for her eighth graders also addressed Oregon's scoring guides for speaking. Using the scoring guides, she evaluated the pupils' initial presentations at the beginning of her fall term of student teaching, using the state scoring guides for speaking, then taught her social studies unit on Egypt, teaching to the appropriate history benchmark. She videotaped the pupils' oral presentations at the end of the unit for a postinstruction assessment using the same scoring guides.

These student teachers demonstrated that they understood the concept of planning instruction to meet standards and benchmarks. The diagnostic quality of the scoring guides gave the student teachers specific guidance for further planning. The same procedures could be followed for other content areas. These student teachers developed a conceptual understanding of scoring guides and how to use them in other curriculum areas. It seems particularly important for teacher education programs to aid student teachers in selecting ways to integrate curriculum.

Cooperative TWSs

In citing other examples of innovative and successful TWSs, Kyle describes an elementary bilingual setting where two student teachers switched pupils but not classrooms. Teacher 1 taught group A and then B. Teacher 2 taught the same children but in reverse order. The student teachers produced two different work samples (social studies for one and math for the other). It was a great opportunity because they were, on occasion, able to observe each other's lessons and suggest adaptations for individual pupils based on their own work sample opportunities. Their teaming produced individual lessons, yet they shared ideas. Their TWSs were also able to provide intriguing analyses of differences between the two groups.

Overcoming Data Requirement Barriers

Faculty supervisors agree that intensive support is regularly needed to assist student teachers in starting TWS development and implementation. Elizabeth Dohrn observes that once student teachers formulate objectives, develop an evaluation system, and target initial objectives, the TWS then falls into place for them. Certain information must be collected before the decision of where to start teaching can be made. Dohrn finds that the "hump" to overcome occurs because students often think the requirement for a data collection system is difficult to solve. Wise supervisors anticipate such a barrier and stand ready to help students design a system and the necessary measures. Students often need much support during this decision period. Once they collect initial data and develop a task analysis of skills, they can design instruction and begin to teach.

The TWS comes alive in student teaching. Rice observes that although students practice developing, implementing, and evaluating TWSs in their university classrooms, it is not until they do it for real that it makes sense to them. Their heightened awareness comes from their own design of a TWS and the fact that their specific group of children teaches them about pupils' intellectual diversity and the need and means to accommodate instruction for specific differences. While the TWS standards call for instructional adaptations, students are able to see firsthand how children display such huge academic variability. Finally, Rice notes that student teachers address issues of variability in their reflective writing for the TWS.

Using Scoring Guides for Pupils' Work in a TWS

Much collaboration takes place between cooperating teachers and student teachers. For example, one of the cooperating teachers with whom Rice worked was a trainer for her district on the use of scoring guides in reading. By having her student teacher incorporate these guides, the cooperating teacher was given a valuable perspective for future training. The cooperating teacher, because of her depth of experience, provided detailed feedback to the student teacher as she implemented these guidelines. Performance data on the pupils that the student teacher collected were then incorporated into parent conferences and used to serve as planning guides for future instruction. The standards and scoring guides proved to be wonderful tools for the student teacher and cooperating teacher's collaboration.

The skills most helpful for students in developing their TWSs appear to be those that include the capabilities related to organization, data collection, and assessment and evaluation.

Clearly, implementation of a TWS, guided by the university supervisor and cooperating teacher, represents the roles teachers really play. Planning, implementation, assessment, analysis, and reflection are steps that all teachers are expected to undertake, at least informally.

RECOMMENDED EVALUATION OF TWS PRODUCTS AND PROCESSES

The use of evaluation forms in assessing the TWS not only provides a framework for student evaluation but also assists the prospective teacher in organizing the report. Student teachers know exactly which components need to be included in their TWSs. They also know what skills are to be evaluated during the supervisor's observations.

Figure 12.5. Feedback on Observation

Student: ______________________ Date: ______________

Evaluator: ______________________ Site: ______________

Scale for evaluation of practicum student's competency:
1 = Inadequate; 2 = Below average; 3 = Average; 4 = Above average; 5 = Outstanding

Activities observed and pupil(s) involved (may include direct instruction, transitions, free time, etc.): ______________________

Demonstrates familiarity with pupil(s) and their needs	1	2	3	4	5	
Demonstrates appropriate planning for activities	1	2	3	4	5	
Teacher's language is appropriate for pupil(s)	1	2	3	4	5	
Plans for effective use of pupil communication systems	1	2	3	4	5	
Delivers cues effectively (cues are clear, direct, appropriate for activity)	1	2	3	4	5	
Delivers prompts effectively (appropriate system: least to most; timely delivery)	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Delivers consequences effectively:						
Positive consequences	1	2	3	4	5	
Error correction (clear, timely, leads to success)	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Positive/negative ratio (80% or more positive)	1	2	3	4	5	
Uses effective behavior management strategies	1	2	3	4	5	N/A

Other comments: ______________________

Observation Forms

No single observation form is used by all Western faculty to provide formative and summative feedback to practicum students and student teachers. Several programs have modified the basic observation form shown in Appendix Q. For example, the special education programs at Western, which expect students to involve themselves in several of five different types of TWS, have developed corresponding observation forms for those various work samples. The observation form in Figure 12.5 was devised to be used when observing a special education student teacher working, typically, with one child. The form in Figure 12.6, however, is to be used when observing a student teacher instructing a small group of special education pupils. In general, though, the teacher education programs at Western adapt (or adopt) the observation form included in Table 3.5.

Determining Timely Process

Supervisors need to regularly review the student's progress in meeting product requirements for the TWS. As students meet suggested product and/or process time line dates, their work is evaluated. If the student is not making timely progress, the supervisor should then request a three-way meeting with the candidate and cooperating teacher to identify barriers and facilitate meeting objectives.

Figure 12.6. Observation of Group Instruction

Name: ______________________ Lesson content: ______________________

Instructional setting: ______________ Number of students: _____ . Date: ________

Scale for evaluation of practicum student's competency:
1 = Inadequate; 2 = Below average; 3 = Average; 4 = Above average; 5 = Outstanding

	Ratings	Comments
Planning		
Content appropriate to pupils	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Clear objective(s)	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Methods relate to objective(s)	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Appropriate materials	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Opening		
Keeps pupils' attention	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Reviews rules/expectations	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Reviews relevant preskills	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Presents nature of activity	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Body of Lesson		
Clear explanation/instructions	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Keeps pupils' attention	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
• Materials ready	Yes No N/A	
• Appropriate amount of teacher talk	Yes No	
• Elicits frequent responses	Yes No	
• Maintains appropriate pace	Yes No	
Appropriate prompting of pupils' responses	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Individualizes to pupils' needs	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
• Different tasks	Yes No N/A	
• Different cues	Yes No N/A	
• Different prompts	Yes No N/A	
• Different materials	Yes No N/A	
• Different response modes	Yes No N/A	
Maximizes success (80 to 90%)	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Equalizes response opportunities	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Gives appropriate feedback	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Closing		
Review/preview	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Introduces independent work	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Appropriate transition procedures	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	
Effective Group Behavior Management Strategies	1 2 3 4 5 N/A	

Evaluator: ______________

Final Visits

By midterm, supervisors should have made at least two observations of the student implementing the TWS. Before the final conference, additional visits should have been made to thoroughly observe the student teacher during the full-time TWS experience. Formal feedback should have been provided about the TWS instructional performance. At the final conference, many Western supervisors complete the observation ratings on the student teacher evaluation forms. Special commendations are noted and special tips for the candidate given. The forms are given to the student to include and discuss in the final TWS report.

TWSs Maintained in Students' Files

TWSs can become an important part of an extensive notebook of the student's teaching products. For example, Western's special education teacher candidates assemble a portfolio of professional competencies. The TWS is just one product evaluated during the term of student teaching. Samples of a student's two best work samples are filed. (Students may complete as many as five or more TWSs across their program.) The TWSs that address either academic and/or functional skills for individuals or groups are the ones kept for permanent samples, as they address skills that are part of a school's curriculum and pupils' IEPs. (Chapter 17 describes these different types of TWSs in greater detail.)

Table 12.1. Academic or Functional Work Sample Evaluation

Name:		Site:	
Program title:		Date implemented:	
Program component	*Element*	*Rating*	*Comments*
Appropriate objective	Goals	/ 1	
Rationale	Goals	/ 1	
Steps in task analysis (with criteria)	Plans	/ 2	
Procedures	Plans	/ 2	
Setting, time, place, materials	Plans	/ 1	
Reinforcement/fading	Plans	/ 2	
Prompting strategy/fading	Plans	/ 2	
Error correction	Plans	/ 2	
Data system	Plans	/ 2	
Baseline data	Data	/ 2	
Your response to data	Data	/ 2	
Summary of data (graph and paragraph)	Data	/ 2	
Interpretation of learning gains	Interpretation	/ 2	
Use of data to plan further instruction	Use of data	/ 2	
Total:		/ 25	
Additional comments:		Reviewer:	

Table 12.2. Behavior Treatment Plan Evaluation

Site supervisor's approval for implementation:				
Name:				
Treatment plan:			Date implemented:	
Program component	**First review**		**Final review**	
Behavioral analysis Pinpoint behavior (1)	Rating	Comments	Rating	Comments
Baseline (2)				
ABC analysis (3)				
Hypothesis (3)				
Treatment plan Objective (2)				
Prevention (2)				
Instruction (2)				
Reaction (2)				
Data system (2)				
Implementation of plan Data (2)				
Response to data (2)				
Review of plan Recommended changes (2)				
Total points (25)				

Western's faculty, across all programs, recommend looking through the student teacher's notebook or portfolio at each observation visit. Doing so provides a natural checkpoint for the student and helps to keep her/him on track. Tables 12.1 and 12.2 show forms prospective special education teachers are provided as they develop three different types of TWSs: academic, functional, or behavior treatment. When the supervisor visits the student teaching site, he or she reviews the forms with the student to ensure that the necessary products and processes are being completed.

Final Assessment of TWSs

This segment contains suggestions for developing the summative TWS rating. At Western, university supervisors in the elementary and secondary programs complete the summative evaluation form (Table 3.5) to rate the final TWS reports. The most effective way to evaluate the work sample is to assess it as it is being developed and implemented. Yet sometimes work sample final reports unfortunately are handed to the university supervisor at the end of student teaching with little previous review. It benefits the student to get feedback throughout the development and implementation of the TWS. When the quality of a TWS calls into concern whether the candidate will be judged as deserving a recommendation for licensing, it is common practice at Western to call on a faculty colleague to review the TWS.

Kyle has found the TWS evaluation forms to be very trustworthy in the sense that students understand them. Kyle has supervised more than 100 student teachers since the inception of TWSs at Western and has never had a student challenge the summary rating assigned on the scoring guide. Students, across their student teaching term, seem to develop a sense of the quality of their work. The forms are a handy and convenient way to evaluate students.

Culminating Activity

A beneficial final activity in the TWS curriculum is to ask students to summarize the understanding they have gained across the program. Kyle believes successful supervision includes a process of leading student teachers through TWS steps slowly. By taking beginning student teachers through a review of each step of work sample design, Kyle creates a comfort zone for student teachers. Students often develop even more confidence after completing a task where they are asked to compare their current understanding of TWSs in student teaching with their initial impressions of the process when TWSs were first introduced in their early course work. Last, to focus students on their own growth, they can be asked at a final seminar to describe what they believe they have learned.

According to Kyle, breakdowns in the process of work sample development usually occur when students say they understand the process but by the next week begin to question their understanding and compare what they are doing with the activities of other students and with the classroom supervisor's feedback. To ensure clarity, Kyle recommends both supervisors establish in their students at the outset a clear understanding of the components of and expectations for a TWS. Kyle believes that she has been quite successful at avoiding breakdowns and confusion. The accompanying box provides comments from recent Western graduates who developed TWSs and are now teachers.

The purpose of TWSs is to benefit the learning of student teachers and their pupils. It is the responsibility of the university supervisor and the cooperating teacher to manage the supervision of the student teacher. From the moment of the initial conference where ideas for TWSs are shared to the establishment of time lines for completing assigned TWS components and tasks to the continual asking of questions to guide the student teacher's reflections, the team of supervisors needs to keep focused on a successful experience for the student teacher. While some students realize during this culminating experience that teaching is not for them, the majority want to be teachers and need support and guidance in realizing their dreams.

You Will Look Back on This and Thank Us

E. Michelle Pardew

In the spring of 1997, Western's Teacher Effectiveness Project team conducted focus group sessions for elementary, secondary, and special education teacher graduates who had been working in the profession for at least a year. The focus group members were asked to assess a variety of preparation program components, including TWSs. Specifically, they were asked to speak about the instructional processes Western provided regarding TWSs.

In general, the focus group members were satisfied with the supervision they received during student teaching. They felt they had been encouraged to be reflective and independent thinkers. They expressed a strong appreciation for having experienced work sample methodology. Following are some comments that capture their revelations and opinions.

> Okay, this is like my mom saying, "You'll do it now and you'll appreciate it later."
>
> Learning the methodology surrounding a work sample was very helpful, as that is how I mentally focus my lessons and teach.
>
> I feel that the work sample methodology helps a person become organized.
>
> Work sample methodology in a nutshell: good for developing and practicing organizational skills and writing goals and IEP objectives.
>
> The work sample is a tremendous burden to assemble! It takes time, thought, and production to develop a sample that reflects one's own work. Things that take effort and lots of energy are rarely things that have little value. Although the work sample is a contrived project, if tailored to a specific site I believe [it] could become the scaffolding one could take to any situation and begin to develop an effective program.
>
> You remember 10% of what you hear, 20% of what you see, and 80% of what you do. Work sample methodology is the doing!
>
> Although I resented doing the work sample, I realize now that it was an extremely valuable tool in preparing me for the realities of teaching. I think it is a crucial piece of teacher preparation...that it shouldn't be modified or changed in any way.

SUMMARY

A TWS is a major focus of the full-time practicum and is a critical focus for supervisory activities. While it is not the only important expectation for field performance, the TWS serves as an organizing element for the design and implementation of teacher education instruction. As emphasized throughout this handbook, TWS affords students the opportunity to thoughtfully plan their instruction so they are better prepared to manage instruction. Student teaching allows candidates to practice how to be a teacher; the more organized and relevant their instruction, the more successful they will be in meeting the needs of children.

This chapter on supervision will, I hope, be useful in helping others to organize supervision and evaluation of student teachers as they complete TWSs. The supervisory forms can be easily adapted to other collegiate settings. Along with these forms, the perspectives of several faculty are provided on what is required to make supervision of TWSs effective across all teacher education programs.

NOTE

1. The reader may find it useful here to review how student teaching, licensure, and TWSs are interlocked in Oregon. Most Western students complete their teacher training and requirements for their initial teaching license while acquiring a bachelor's degree. Postbaccalaureate students also come to the programs to earn initial licenses, subject matter authorizations, and/or specialty endorsements. Special education licensure is completed at the graduate level only and offers a variety of endorsements (see chapter 17). All students, whether undergraduate or graduate, must complete a TWS as part of their licensure and/or authorization program.

Section III

Programmatic Concerns

Those responsible for managing or even initiating the inclusion of work samples into a teacher preparation program undoubtedly have several questions about how to handle such a process effectively. This section tries to answer two such significant questions.

First, a dean or director wants to know how one might go about aiding and supporting faculty as they make the myriad changes called for when work samples are embedded in a program. Meredith Brodsky, dean of Western's College of Education, discusses six major questions deans and directors need to consider or plan to resolve. Brodsky describes what makes up each element and then reports the procedures she employed in answering those concerns at Western.

Second, program managers, before investing much time and many resources in teacher work samples, want to know if the methodology will likely benefit their students. Gerald Girod and Mark Schalock present two lines of evidence to help answer that question. Western's faculty think their students who learned and practiced TWSM are more professionally adept than previous students who graduated from a more traditional program. The graduates themselves agree that their experiences, though rigorous, were helpful and practical.

Chapter 13

Structuring Preparation Programs to Accommodate Teacher Work Sample Methodology

by Meredith M. Brodsky, Western Oregon University

Since 1988, the College of Education faculty at Western have worked to develop the concept that the "productivity of teachers" should be determined, at least in part, by their ability to bring about learning gains in their pupils. After more than 10 years of concerted faculty involvement with teacher work sample methodology (TWSM), the link between pupils' learning gains and teaching has become the heart of the curriculum for the initial and continuing (advanced) licensure programs. A number of factors influenced the evolution of this methodology and its role in the restructuring of the curriculum of Western's teacher preparation programs:

- The implementation of the Oregon Education Act for the 21st Century, which significantly raised the standards for K-12 education
- A substantial change in Oregon licensure rules that provided a window of opportunity for the College of Education to redesign its curriculum in elementary, secondary, and special education
- Foundation funding that provided time for selected faculty to work on refinements of work sample methodology in Western's Teacher Effectiveness Project
- The compatibility of TWSM's conceptual framework with state and national trends in standards-based education
- The long-term commitment made by faculty and administrators to study the theory and practice of TWSM

The purpose of this chapter is twofold: to explain briefly the context that fostered Western's focus on TWSM in its teacher preparation and to identify six variables that must be accounted for when administrators of teacher preparation programs set out to encourage the adoption of TWSM.

THE INFLUENCE OF TWSM ON THE DESIGN OF THE CURRICULUM

The evolving demands of teaching in standards-based schools have had a number of implications for redesigning the curriculum, the model for delivery of instruction, and the evaluation process in Oregon teacher preparation programs. In 1985, the Oregon legislature began to respond to the national inquiry about the alleged failure of schools to adequately prepare their graduates for transition to adult life. Initial legislation was revised in 1991 to become the Oregon Education Act for the 21st Century. This act set a new course throughout Oregon for improved student performance by

- Raising expectations for all pupils in K-12 education
- Focusing curriculum and instruction on higher standards built on the basics of math, science, social studies, language arts, and a second language
- Holding pupils accountable for achieving the standards through tests and performance measures
- Using the community as a resource for contextual learning
- Forging new working partnerships among schools, parents, employers, and communities

The aim of this legislation was to ensure that high school graduates were well prepared for college, employment, and the responsibilities of adult life. The legislation, the resulting changes in Oregon's teacher licensure, and the history of Western's developmental work on TWSM combined to bring about the professional program that is currently in place at Western (see Figure 13.1).

SIX VARIABLES TO ACCOUNT FOR WHEN ADOPTING TWSM

Even though other schools of education may not experience the same stages of development as Western, they may be able to benefit from what we have learned. If the administration and faculty of a school of education decide to implement TWSM as part of their culture of teaching and learning, a number of issues would have to be considered. The inclusion of TWSM has implications for

- The curriculum
- Faculty development
- The expectations communicated to students in teacher education
- Working relationships with cooperating teachers in the field
- Data collection and program evaluation
- Allocation of resources in the unit

The following sections discuss the impact on those six areas of implementing TWSM. To help readers understand the wide-ranging impact of TWSM on most aspects of a teacher preparation program, each of the six areas is discussed from three perspectives:

- A description of how an area will be impacted
- The questions or concerns with which leaders will need to deal
- How Western resolved or dealt with those questions

Curricular Implications

TWSM is not simply a matter of adding a topic and corresponding requirements to a course. To be effective, TWSM has to be thought of as a strand of knowledge and practice that threads throughout the professional program. In the first courses of their professional programs, students should be introduced to the conceptual framework of TWSM (Perry, Smith, & McConney, 1997).

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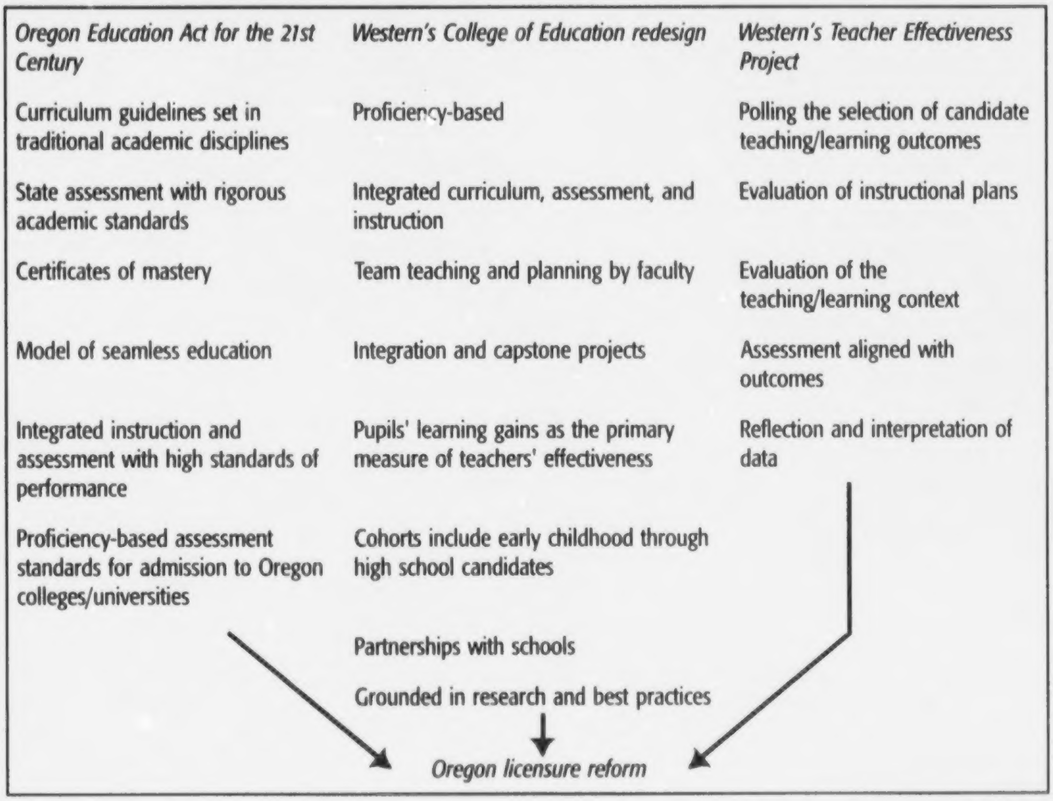
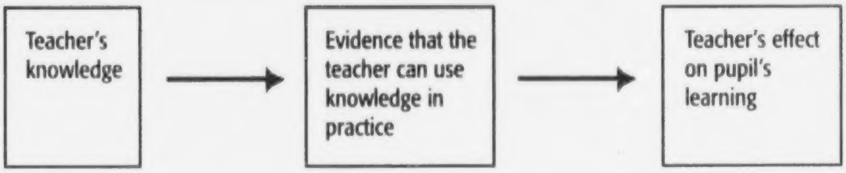
Figure 13.1. The Interrelationships of Politically Mandated and Empirically Derived Reform Concepts at Western Oregon University



Oregon Education Act for the 21st Century	*Western's College of Education redesign*	*Western's Teacher Effectiveness Project*
Curriculum guidelines set in traditional academic disciplines	Proficiency-based	Polling the selection of candidate teaching/learning outcomes
State assessment with rigorous academic standards	Integrated curriculum, assessment, and instruction	Evaluation of instructional plans
Certificates of mastery	Team teaching and planning by faculty	Evaluation of the teaching/learning context
Model of seamless education	Integration and capstone projects	Assessment aligned with outcomes
Integrated instruction and assessment with high standards of performance	Pupils' learning gains as the primary measure of teachers' effectiveness	Reflection and interpretation of data
Proficiency-based assessment standards for admission to Oregon colleges/universities	Cohorts include early childhood through high school candidates	
	Partnerships with schools	
	Grounded in research and best practices	

Oregon licensure reform

Figure 13.2. Assumed Influence of Teaching on Learning


Teacher's knowledge
Evidence that the teacher can use knowledge in practice
Teacher's effect on pupil's learning

This framework should be founded on the belief that teaching includes the responsibility to bring about learning gains in all pupils (see Figure 13.2).

All course work and syllabi should be developed to support the candidates' understanding of the theories that underlie effective teaching and learning. In addition, exposure to best practices of instruction must be provided. The schedule of courses must provide ample time in field experience to practice, analyze, reflect, and continuously improve the students' abilities to bring about learning gains in their pupils.

Threading the content related to TWSM throughout the program requires collaborative efforts among the faculty. They need to determine how to introduce the concepts, how to build on the knowledge gained in earlier courses, how to balance theory and practice, what is to be expected for initial licensure and advanced licensure, how to select a common vocabulary to ensure that the information is consistent among professors and across terms, and how to communicate that TWSM is not merely a teacher preparation course assignment but a way of life for an educator. In some courses, the exposure to TWSM may be minimal. In other teacher preparation courses, such as those where the class focus is on curriculum, assessment, or instruction, TWSM will receive concentrated attention.

Questions to Consider

Program leaders need to address the following questions with the faculty to ensure that TWSM is truly woven throughout the preparation of teachers:

- In which course will TWSM be introduced?
- How many work samples will be required of students?
- What criteria will be used to evaluate work samples?
- How will the course content be integrated with the field experience?
- Will students be coached and guided to attain a clearly stated summative standard through carefully planned curriculum and evaluation procedures throughout their professional core courses?
- How will the requirements of the work sample differ for initial and continuing licensure?

Activities at Western

TWSM is at the heart of the teacher preparation curriculum. Almost all course work relates directly to the belief that a teacher's work is to bring about learning gains in pupils. In a Western course called Role of the Teacher, TWSM is discussed as being a critical aspect of a teacher's professional work. In another course, Human Development and Learning, students learn how to apply concepts from developmental psychology to the selection of curriculum, application of instructional strategies, and application of assessment processes and formats. In the technology courses, students learn not only to use computers and visual and auditory equipment as instructional resources for themselves as preservice teachers but also to help their pupils learn through the use of technological resources. In a course on collaboration, students learn how to adapt instruction to the diverse population of pupils they will encounter in schools.

Most of the instruction directly related to the processes and products of TWSM is taught in a 2-term sequence called Assessment and Instruction. The course introduces the components of TWSM, and students begin to practice writing sections of instructional plans. They learn about the state standards related to the various content areas, how to assess the current knowledge and abilities of their pupils, and how to develop assessment instruments that are directly aligned with the curriculum. Faculty model TWSM by showing their instructional plans to the students, by analyzing the data from pre- and posttests taken by the students, and by reflecting on their own teaching practice with the students. Four terms of field experience provide students with many opportunities to practice TWSM until they are able to independently design and implement their own work samples in their final term of student teaching.

Impact on Faculty Work

The adoption of TWSM will significantly affect the lives of faculty. The most significant impact is on how they spend their instructional and planning time. The adoption of TWSM requires faculty to develop a new curriculum and support materials. It requires frequent meetings among members of the faculty to reach agreements about all the curriculum issues outlined in the preceding section. Working with cooperating teachers to prepare them to assist their student teachers in implementing work samples and helping supervisors know how to contribute to the process of evaluating new field performance activities also involve a significant commitment of time. Faculty face increased demands for coaching students in learning TWSM skills throughout the curriculum and in evaluating the final work sample during student teaching. Finally, there is an ongoing need to review and revise the components of TWSM, the effectiveness of on-campus instruction, the materials, and the summary data collected on students' skills. University and program administrators need to recognize the impact of implementing TWSM on the faculty, to help faculty buy into the program before beginning implementation, and to support their efforts to initiate and maintain TWSM as a critical component of the professional program.

Before implementation, the administration might do well to appoint a study group of faculty members to read about TWSM, visit programs where it has been implemented, and develop a summary of their ideas regarding the possibilities and the challenges of adopting TWSM. The administration also needs a way to monitor how the decisions are made and to decide what is and what is not working well during implementation. The administration also needs to think about implementation activities as they affect the quality of work life for the faculty. A balance of positive activities is needed to offset the initial efforts involved.

Because of the time required to assess TWSM, one way to offset the work involved might include smaller classes. Another example might be to build use of TWSM into the university or college requirements for promotion and tenure.

Questions to Consider

- How will the faculty be introduced to the concept of TWSM?
- How will the unit's governance process be used to make the decision whether to adopt TWSM?
- Who will be responsible for developing and enforcing time lines for implementation?

- Will faculty receive extra compensation for the additional work needed to produce new syllabi, instructional materials, and evaluation forms, and, if so, how will that occur?
- Will faculty receive extra compensation for the additional time needed for field experience, and, if so, how will that occur?
- Who will take the lead in data design, analysis, and reporting for the unit and for individual programs?
- How will the faculty evaluate the incorporation of TWSM into their practice?
- If graduate teaching assistants are used to teach and/or supervise, who will train them and monitor their work?
- How might adoption of TWSM impact faculty work issues such as class size, work loads, and requirements for promotion and tenure? How will these issues be communicated to the provost or administrative vice president and faculty in other programs?

Activities at Western

When TWSM was initially introduced at Western, one or two faculty from each program area in the College of Education volunteered to serve on a committee to develop the initial design for implementing TWSM into the elementary, secondary, and special education programs. At first, development of the materials focused on the summative evaluation activities in student teaching. As the methodology became more refined and as more faculty volunteered to participate on the committee, faculty began to embed content relative to TWSM in more courses. They also began to teach about TWSM earlier in the three professional programs. When work samples became a requirement of the state licensing agency, faculty gave even more attention to preparing students to understand the concepts underlying the methodology as well as increasing the opportunities for learning and practice in both course work and field experience.

Three key activities eventually led to solid integration of TWSM into the mainstream work of the College of Education. The first was the development of a design team charged to refine TWSM activities. The design team organized meetings once a term for all faculty involved in the preparation of teachers. These meetings contributed to a shared understanding and support of the team's work to foster TWSM in the preparation programs. The faculty meetings also provided meaningful opportunities for members to share their innovations about improving curriculum related to TWSM. The meetings resulted in a learning community that has gone beyond the issues of TWSM and helped the faculty to gain breadth in issues related to teaching, learning, and research in a wide array of topics.

Second, over time a literature review and database were developed that provided faculty with many opportunities to conduct research, write, and present their work on TWSM at regional and national conferences. The areas of research generated around TWSM became sufficient for an annual symposium that colleagues from all over the country attended. Western teacher education faculty played a significant role in presenting data and sharing best practices from their work on campus. This opportunity for their professional development and support for their promotion files added value to the academic life of participating faculty members.

Third, funding from the university, and later a foundation, provided three to four faculty members "buy-out" time at one quarter full-time employment for the year to focus their time and energy on studying and developing TWSM. This time allocation gave credence to the importance of the work and allowed the developmental work to progress faster than it would have without the outside support.

Expectations for Students

The major implication for students in a school of education that embraces TWSM is that they will be held responsible for demonstrating they know how to teach in ways that effect learning gains in their pupils. If bringing about learning gains in pupils is to be a significant part of their performance-based evaluation of outcomes, then the students will need to learn not only the mechanics of putting together an effective work sample but also the philosophy that underlies this practice.

As students move from initial to continuing licensure during their professional development and as they broaden their experiences in the classroom, higher standards should exist for the work samples they produce. The level of expectation for students in the initial licensure programs also grows as they move through their program (see also chapter 1). Acquiring professional independence is a goal sought and expected as students move toward licensure. Students need to start with in-class practice and receive considerable feedback and assistance. They need to produce at least two work samples during the program, preferably more. In the production of the first work sample, students need to be critiqued and assisted. Students should be expected to produce the final work sample independently and then have their work evaluated by a faculty member. The requirements should be even higher for a continuing license.

Questions to Consider

The major question for program developers to consider as they think about the impact of the adoption of TWSM on their students is What will they need to know and be able to do relative to TWSM to complete their program and be recommended for a license? This question leads to a number of others:

- How much time will be necessary for students to work on assignments directly related to TWSM?
- How will students know how good is good enough when preparing each TWS component?

- Will students be "failed" if they are unable to bring about learning gains in their pupils during student teaching? How will that decision be presented to them?
- How will students gain knowledge of theory and practice of TWSM throughout their course work and field experience?
- Will students be expected to embed their TWS document in a professional portfolio?
- Will students have an experience sufficiently meaningful to ensure that they carry TWSM theory, beliefs, and technical expertise into their first years of teaching?
- What will the TWS scoring guides encompass?
- Will greater learning gains for simple tasks receive more credit than lesser gains for complex tasks that require higher order thinking skills?
- Will the expectations for TWS change as students work toward their continuing license?
- Should the academic standard related to TWSM proficiencies differ for students earning a bachelor's degree and students earning a master's degree?

Activities at Western

Students at Western are introduced to TWSM early in the professional programs. The first few days of the program they receive Assessment Framework for the Proficiency-Based Teacher Preparation Program, which specifies 14 proficiencies they must demonstrate as they progress though the program (see Table 13.1 for an example of a proficiency and Table 13.2 for data sources used to assess it). Sources of evidence are specified in their proficiency document and in their course syllabi so they know what is to be demonstrated and how that demonstration will occur. Students know how they must demonstrate their attainment of the proficiencies to go on to the next term and, at the completion of their program, what is required to be recommended for a teaching license. One of the proficiencies calls for the production of a sample of work to demonstrate their ability to bring about learning gains in their pupils. Other proficiencies relate to the TWSM in terms of knowledge of content appropriate to develop lesson plans, establish a classroom climate conducive to learning, apply knowledge of developmental psychology to the design of instruction, communicate effectively in writing and orally, work collaboratively, and use technology effectively. Students also experience TWSM skills and processes firsthand as the faculty model their own instruction using a work sample approach. The faculty's expectations for proficiency escalate as students progress through the term. The standards are higher yet for students working on a continuing or advanced license.

Field Experience

In addition to curricular changes and faculty development, the dean or director, field services coordinator, and faculty need to determine necessary changes in the field experience component. Cooperating teachers need to be informed about the demands and benefits of TWSM, because candidates will be using

Table 13.1. Materials Used to Describe Proficiencies at Western Oregon

Teaching proficiency 4: Evaluate, act upon, and report student progress in learning.

Student progress. A student who is proficient in this area establishes solid formal and informal classroom assessment practices, documents pupils' progress in accomplishing state and district standards, and evaluates pupils' progress for the purpose of reporting to pupils, parents, and other appropriate audiences as well as for monitoring and adjusting lessons and related learning activities.

Level 1 **Beginning**	**Level 2** **Emerging**	**Level 3** **Developing**	**Level 4** **Maturing**	**Level 5** **Strong**	**Level 6** **Exemplary**
Sources of evidence for evaluating, acting upon, and reporting pupils' progress in learning at this level demonstrate a candidate's level of knowledge and ability to:					
• Recognize and explain the need for formal and informal classroom assessment practices. • Understand the importance of recording pupils' progress in accomplishing state and district standards for monitoring pupils' growth and the procedures for documenting such progress. • Reflect on how to establish alternative environments for learning when pupil and classroom progress in learning is less than desired. • Understand the need to provide frequent information about pupils' progress in learning to children and families.	• Gain information about pupils' learning progress from a variety of valid and reliable formal and informal classroom assessment practices. • Maintain records that reflect pupils' progress in accomplishing state and district standards and reflect on how this information may be used to alter environments for learning. • Identify ways that a learning environment may be changed to ensure improved pupil and classroom progress in learning. • Evaluate effective methods of sharing information about pupils' progress in learning with children and families.	• Develop and use a variety of valid and reliable formal and informal classroom assessment practices, such as pre- and posttests, observation schedules, pupil interviews, performance tasks, and self-evaluations; interpret pupils' progress toward meeting learning goals. • Identify appropriate state and district standards for classroom assessment, establish a record-keeping system that reflects pupils' progress toward meeting learning goals, and interpret collected assessment information and reflect necessary modifications in lesson design and implementation. • Assess and implement developmentally appropriate changes in a learning environment that improves pupils' and classroom learning; determine how these changes impact time expectations, learning goals, settings, and other factors. • Provide information to pupils and families about instructional programs and pupils' progress toward meeting learning goals.	• Expand development and use of a variety of valid and reliable formal and informal classroom assessment practices, such as pre- and posttests, observation schedules, pupil interviews, performance tasks, and self-evaluations; facilitate pupils' interpretation of progress toward meeting learning goals. • Integrate state and district standards into learning goals and classroom assessment methods; expand assessment methods to include pupils' input in design and interpretation of results. • Create a learning environment in which assessment standards are an expected part of learning activities; provide ongoing refinement of instructional plans, including such elements as time expectations, learning goals, and settings based on evaluation of pupils' progress. • Provide frequent and meaningful information to children and families about instructional programs and pupils' progress toward meeting learning goals; involve children in reporting learning progress to their families.	• Investigate research-based methods of assessment for standards-based classrooms; strengthen classroom use of such methods, including valid and reliable formal and informal classroom assessment practices. • Assist pupils in monitoring their own progress in meeting state and district standards by incorporating standards into learning goals and classroom assessment methods. • Establish a strong learning environment in which assessment standards are an expected part of learning activities; assist children in developing and maintaining continuous improvement plans that reflect individual growth and progress toward meeting learning goals.	• Expand use of research-based methods of assessment for standards-based classrooms; participate in district and building development of valid and reliable formal and informal assessment methods, including verifying scoring of pupils' work. • Consistently assist pupils in monitoring their own progress in meeting state and district standards by incorporating standards into learning goals and classroom assessment methods; provide opportunities for children to see links between the standards and goals and the learning activities on which they are being assessed. • Maintain a strong learning environment in which assessment standards are an expected part of learning activities and in which alterations in learning environment are based on complete pupil profiles; assist pupils in developing and maintaining continuous improvement plans that reflect individual growth and progress toward meeting learning goals. • Engage families and children in the review of the instructional program as well as pupils' progress toward meeting learning goals; create a positive atmosphere in which children evaluate their own work and are involved in modifying learning goals on a regular basis.

Table 13.2. Proficiency Levels and Data Sources Used to Assess Them

Proficiency level	Sources of evidence for benchmark exit
Level 1	Cross-course midterm exam Autobiographical paper Observational narrative Site description
Level 2	Mini-work sample Rationale for integration and assessment Integration project
Level 3	Work sample 1 Integration project
Level 4	Work sample 2 Integration project

the methodology as a key part of their practicum or student teaching requirements. Cooperating teachers need to understand the underlying beliefs about TWSM, expectations and requirements for students, and evaluation activities. They need assurance that they can approve the student teacher's work sample plans, instructional strategies, and evaluation methods before they are implemented in their classrooms. They also need a clear description of the components of TWSM, how the work sample will be evaluated, and their role and responsibility in that evaluation (see chapter 12).

It is also important to provide an overview of TWSM in the context of the practicum and student teaching for principals and superintendents. This can be done through a variety of methods, such as written or group presentations or one-on-one meetings.

If the cooperating teachers are to take on significant responsibility for coaching the practicum and student teacher and evaluating the development and implementation of the work sample, they should receive reasonable compensation.

Questions to Consider

- How will faculty communicate the components and requirements of TWSM to school district personnel, including cooperating teachers, principals, and superintendents?
- What instructional and evaluative responsibilities will cooperating teachers be given?
- How and for what will cooperating teachers be compensated?
- What role will cooperating teachers have in deciding whether a student teacher's work sample is adequate?
- How will cooperating teachers and practicum and student teachers reach agreement about when the student is ready for implementation of the TWS as part of field experience requirements?

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Activities at Western

Western faculty have, over time, developed handbooks to clearly outline the roles and responsibilities of cooperating teachers, college faculty, practicum students, and student teachers during the field experience. They have developed scripts and presentation materials for faculty to go over with teachers, principals, and superintendents so everyone hears the same message.

Several decisions have been made about the role of supervisors in helping student teachers as they design and implement their TWSs. Most of the decisions, provided below, were developed to answer the concern about the level of students' independence as they work with classroom teachers. For the description of the context for the teaching setting, cooperating teachers, faculty supervisors, and Western students collaboratively complete the form laid out in the handbook.

For the first work sample, faculty commonly provide feedback on the student's development of the lesson plans and evaluation strategies. The cooperating teacher must approve the plan before the student implements the first TWS with pupils. Before the TWS plan is approved, considerable emphasis is given to the alignment of the work sample with state standards so student teachers are not teaching lessons in isolation from the state, local, and classroom curricula. Cooperating teachers and supervising faculty are both expected to evaluate the implementation (teaching performance) of the first work sample.

The student teacher develops the second work sample independently. Again, the cooperating teacher must approve it before implementation. Both the cooperating teacher and the supervising faculty member from the university evaluate implementation of the second work sample. After the work sample unit has been taught, the pupils' learning gain data analyzed, and the reflective essay completed, the student gives the document to his or her university faculty supervisor for a complete evaluation. We have found at Western that it takes a faculty member approximately 2 1/2 hours to thoroughly review and evaluate a completed work sample.

Agreements have been made and become part of contracts between districts and the university to specify the compensation for being a cooperating teacher. The contracts provide a stipend as well as college course work at staff rates for cooperating teachers.

Data Collection and Program Evaluation

Implementation of an effective program-wide database is important for making program decisions and for continuously improving the application of TWSM. A database related to TWSM can also provide supporting evidence of the effectiveness of the teacher preparation program. Considerations for the development of a database should include (a) ease of recording data, (b) structure of the fields or variables to include in the database, and (c) what types of summary information will be helpful to faculty and the dean or director. We have found at Western that a data collection system should address six areas:

Database

Costs will accrue to the preparation program to develop and set up a database. These costs will include software, time for a programmer, and time for a person to produce reports. Later, this chapter addresses planning for the impact of these costs on the budget.

Data Analysis

Summaries of data collected by student teachers can serve a number of purposes. Such reports provide faculty a quantitative and qualitative picture of the work being completed by their students. The data may be reviewed for continuous quality improvement of the TWS measures and the teacher preparation curriculum. The data can be reported to provide an indication of the contexts within which student teachers are placed for field experience, the types of instructional strategies they use in their work samples, and the pupils' learning gains. The reflective essays provide faculty a qualitative measure of practicum students' or student teachers' development as they progress through their professional program. The reflective essays may also be translated into numerical data through scoring guides completed by the faculty.

The data will likely foster numerous questions for faculty to discuss as they study the implications of TWSM. The faculty may form questions around the issues of the context in which their students teach, the complexity of the instructional plans the students choose, the approaches to analyzing and evaluating pupils' learning gains, and the learning their students achieve as attested to in their reflective essays. Simply posing questions for collegial discussions has value. Anytime faculty can share their ideas and improve their own practice, TWSM will have served another useful purpose.

Faculty can come together to discuss several issues:

- How are special education pupils on IEPs included in the TWS data analysis?
- Are the definitions used in describing the practicum context appropriate to the settings in which our students are placed?
- How will evaluations of TWSs be determined to be valid and reliable?
- Will a work sample that was easy to teach and resulted in large learning gains be viewed differently from a work sample that was difficult to teach and resulted in smaller learning gains?
- Will student teachers be failed if their pupils made no learning gains or limited gains? How would the faculty defend such a decision?

Finally, the data will be helpful for the faculty and administrators as part of the descriptive information used when applying for grants and reporting faculty productivity and effectiveness and as a source for student and faculty research.

Grants

Data that document the preparation of future teachers as effective producers of learning gains in their pupils are powerful components to include in grant applications. As teaching in standards-based systems becomes more prevalent across the country, data that support approaches to effective teaching as established by pupils' learning are likely to gain increased importance as a measure for effective use of grant funds.

Faculty Productivity

As higher education is called on to be accountable and as institutions come under scrutiny for issues related to productivity, TWSM data can provide clear and convincing documentation of the numbers of student teachers bringing about learning gains related to school standards. Such data can be used to demonstrate, for example, the number of ESL pupils being taught by a college's students, the number or percentage of pupils whose knowledge increased as a result of instruction by the institution's students, or the types of complex outcomes the university's students taught. Each of these indicators, as well as many other possibilities, help provide a compelling case for the productivity of an institution's faculty.

Faculty and Student Research

Data compiled over time are a rich resource for doctoral work and faculty research. TWSM provides rich opportunities to connect data to emerging research, scholarly literature, and current topics in education and allows a university to work with a selected school district around a set of selected pupils or academic subjects. Such work can be powerful as pupils' learning helps decide a project's effectiveness. A focus on TWSM also offers opportunities to collaborate with other scholars involved in this body of work. Many possibilities exist for integrating TWSM into action research projects.

Accreditation

TWSM provides support for state and/or national accreditation reviews in a variety of ways. TWSM is clearly a defensible component of a conceptual framework and knowledge base for a teacher preparation program (Western Oregon University, 1998). Use of program data combined with research literature reviews and innovative problem-solving approaches to help improve learning outcomes is a key factor in the continuous quality improvement that most accreditation agencies expect. Documentation for accreditation reports drawn from TWS data can focus on

- The knowledge base and the instruction embedded in syllabi throughout the program
- Individual and aggregated data from student work samples
- TWSs as part of a capstone of experience

Questions to Consider

- Who will set up the database?
- How frequently will data be reported and analyzed?
- What are the critical questions that will be of most interest to faculty?
- To whom will the data be reported?
- Are data required for annual reports, grant applications, and accreditation reviews included?

Western's Experience

Western has found the database generated over the past 10 years to be extremely valuable in a number of areas. First, the data provide common ground for discourse among the faculty. By setting aside a day quarterly to review data and pose questions related to TWSM, faculty have found opportunities to talk not only with members of their own programs but also with those from other School of Education preparation programs. During those days when data are reviewed, we also provide a forum for sharing that extends beyond the issues of TWSM. Although finding a day for faculty to come together is always difficult, faculty members' reviews of the worth of those days have consistently confirmed that they are valuable. Data review comes from a base at Western that now contains descriptions of over 20,000 pupils and the work of 1,000 student teachers. This database is clearly an indicator of the institution's commitment to document the effectiveness of the teaching faculty. These data have also been used to describe exemplary features of the school as we sought grant funds, and they have been a key part of NCATE accreditation documents. The conceptual framework of the College of Education is exemplified by our TWS performance measures, which help to ensure that our students meet high standards, including those that are tightly aligned with making a difference in pupils.

Impact on the Allocation of Resources

The adoption of TWSM will require revisions in the allocation of resources for the teacher preparation unit's budget. There will be costs in personnel time required to develop forms, to provide inservice training to faculty and district personnel, and to track when forms are to be distributed and following up to ensure they are returned. There will be costs for materials and supplies for assessment forms, handbooks, and summary reports. In addition, setting up and maintaining a database, secretarial help for inputting data, and data storage are all cost items.

Expenses associated with faculty include time set aside to develop forms, procedures, and curriculum. Costs are also associated with the need for time to communicate with and train school personnel. Faculty need to schedule a regular time (we suggest once a term) to review materials, processes, and data. New faculty need to be informed and mentored as they are hired, and school personnel need continued communication as forms and procedures are revised. New cooperating teachers need the college faculty's time to teach them procedures associated with TWSM.

Questions to Consider

- How much of the budget will be allocated to support curriculum change?
- How will the budget be adjusted to provide time for the faculty to implement and maintain the inclusion of TWSM in their work?
- How will funds be allocated to compensate cooperating teachers in the field experience?
- What will it cost to set up and maintain a system for data collection? And program evaluation?
- How will the adoption and use of TWSM affect the services and supplies budget?
- Will students be assessed for the packets that are part of the data collection system, or will the unit absorb the additional costs?
- How much additional secretarial time will be needed to produce the documents to teach about TWSM, to develop the forms, and to input the data?
- What will it cost to design and maintain a data collection and program evaluation database?
- Will any additional equipment be needed?

Western's Experience

Several years ago at Western, the institution's provost funded the initial developmental activities undertaken to support TWSM. The allocation included funding for a half-time project director and limited support to enable the production of data collection materials and data analysis. Faculty donated time to work on the project to review materials and to try out measures. In 1995, a private foundation funded the project, called the Teacher Effectiveness Project, for 3 years of intensive developmental work. Along with supporting four research faculty, the funds provided a one-quarter-time buyout for three to four teaching faculty members to work on materials, provide support to teaching faculty, and review and make decisions based on the data.

Funds were also allocated for all-day faculty meetings, faculty travel to conferences, and publication of materials. The funding from the foundation brought about a significant transformation in the College of Education. The work related to TWSM changed from being an outside mandate by the dean and provost to becoming a faculty-owned and -valued set of activities. This shift in attitude was also influenced by the project's adoption of a national advisory panel to review, critique, and applaud the work of the faculty. The advisory panel, made up of nationally known, respected educators, appreciated the hard work and risks the faculty took. The advisory panel's contact and communication with the faculty fostered a sense of pride and accomplishment and, certainly, the interest and energy to continue to advance this body of work.

SUMMARY

The inclusion of TWSM into the fabric of a teacher preparation program is a bold endeavor. It requires considerable forethought and planning on the part of the administration because of the impact on the nature of the work of the faculty, allocation of resources, and the very nature of what is important in the preparation of teachers. Faculty need to be well prepared and supported as they undertake the implementation process. They also need to understand and accept the responsibility for having a voice in the development of the curriculum, the implications for field experience, and the evaluation of teaching candidates. Faculty and administrators need to decide whether the benefits are worth the effort. It would, however, be difficult to argue that linking a teacher's knowledge and skills with pupils' learning gains is unworthy of the attention of teacher educators.

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Chapter 14

Does TWSM Work?

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So, does teacher work sample methodology actually work as we have claimed? Our answer is Yes. We offer two lines of evidence to support the contention that students employing TWSM do in fact bring about learning gains (see also the discussion in chapter 3). We are not sure that the magnitude of those learning gains is greater than what students from other teacher preparation programs might have brought about. To this point, we have been unable to compare learning gains brought about by Western students with those of students from one or more teacher preparation programs where TWSM was not employed. We do, however, have two sets of data that we think help support our contention that TWSM is valuable for students and their pupils.[1]

In the first analysis of TWSM, we asked Western faculty to describe differences they thought existed between their current students and those from 5 or more years ago when no one was taught about work samples. Gerald Girod interviewed seven veteran faculty in the various Western teacher education programs and asked them to describe differences they thought existed between two groups of students—those with whom they had worked in the past before TWSM was employed and recent students who were taught the concepts and skills of TWSM. Specifically, faculty were asked, "What changes have you noticed in the planning, teaching, and assessment skills of students since Western implemented TWSM?" Of the faculty members who were interviewed, most concurred that their comments were also representative of their colleagues' views. We believe their conclusions, informed by several years of experience, are useful.

Second, we interviewed, in focus group settings, several of our recent graduates who are now teaching to determine their impressions of the utility of TWSM in their professional development. To ensure that the students were as forthright as possible in stating their opinions, we asked three of our research faculty, not our teaching faculty, to conduct those interviews. This chapter presents quotes from those graduates as well as our interpretations of those descriptions.

The summary statements reported below are drawn from data that are impressionistic and subject to the accuracy of the faculty members' and the graduates' memories. The data are also likely biased because, in the case of the faculty members, they have invested a significant amount of personal effort in TWSM. One might anticipate a high degree of concurrence with the use of TWSM (and that did occur in their responses), but there were also some negative outcomes reported by faculty. The conclusions faculty reported, however, do seem to fit with what one would likely associate with a methodology that focuses on alignment of curricular components, is responsive to pupils' preinstructional status as well as several contextual variables, and fosters reflection on pupils' learning and self-growth. The graduates' responses were sometimes about pointed concerns and not as supportive of TWSM as we had hoped. But we found that, overall, graduates found their TWSM experiences to have been quite important in their careers and their daily activities as classroom teachers.

FACULTY CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE INFLUENCE OF TWSM

Faculty responses fell into four broad categories and 15 specific conclusions about the differences they found between students prepared for TWSM and those who were not.

Planning Decisions

1. *Focus on developmentally appropriate instruction and a more organized approach to instruction.* Jacqueline Kyle notes that her former students who had not received instruction on TWSM focused their instructional planning on selecting a set of experiences they thought children would enjoy. Appropriate objectives and activities for pupils were of less importance. Additionally, the instructional steps were not designed to ensure that each child learned. If the prospective teacher was able to entertain the children while teaching them something, then the unit was thought of as successful. What the children might have learned was not a central consideration in the instructional unit. Students who had been taught TWSM concepts and skills seemed likely to choose instructional approaches that were thought to meet the maturity level of the children.

2. *Students more attuned to the context.* Recent prospective teachers, according to Kyle, consciously develop instructional plans that build on the idiosyncratic setting where they work. Plans regularly reflect pupils' preinstructional performance levels, the level of support available to teachers in that classroom, the specific curriculum of the school or district, and the community's expectations. Students in the past commonly planned lessons on the basis of their own interests and skills too often to the exclusion of the needs of the setting, including those of the children.

3. *No increase in creative planning when TWSM is employed.* Before TWSM was a central part of teacher preparation programs, students regularly exhibited both fluency and flexibility in producing many types of instructional units. Those same elements of creativity in planning seem to exist still but with no increase in commonality, according to Kyle. In other words, the positive elements associated with TWSM do not seem to be associated with producing more creative

instructional planners. Conversely, TWSM, with its focus on alignment, does not seem to negatively impact students' abilities to generate varying instructional and assessment plans and materials.

4. *Heightened awareness of alignment.* Students prepared to use TWSM skills and concepts seem much more conscious of ensuring that their goals, objectives, assessments, and instruction are outgrowths of what was appropriate for their pupils as well as the aims of education for their specific district, school, or state. According to Bob Ayres, previous students developed more free-flowing units that regularly seemed to lack anchors to pupils' needs or the community's expectations. In addition, instructional unit components often demonstrated a lack of clear association with one another. Use of TWSM seems to generate an expectation in prospective teachers that their units should be consistent with external standards as well as demonstrate a high degree of an interrelationship among the components of the unit.

Gwenda Rice finds that current students are likely to use information from benchmarks to provide a reference point as to what needs to be taught to their pupils. Previous students found little value in data from district assessments, which were often standardized achievement test scores. With the cooperating teacher's focus on helping children improve their benchmark performance, current students seem to have a clearer idea of what their TWS should help pupils accomplish.

Jim Long contends that several years ago it was common for students to select the topic for their unit based almost exclusively on their personal interests combined with what the cooperating teacher would allow. With the advent of standards-based schools and TWSM, students now select unit topics on the basis of what children at their specific grade level are expected to learn. Students now seem more attuned to the expectations of the community's curriculum.

5. *Outcomes stated with clarity.* Jim Long has been impressed with the focus prospective teachers now have on the outcomes of their instruction. They now seem able to state which goals or objectives govern the direction of their instruction. In the past, students were much more concerned with stating what they intended to do. Before TWSM, students were procedurally oriented; now they seem to be outcome oriented.

Instruction

6. *Contractual obligation.* Bob Ayres has found that one of the disadvantages associated with TWSM has been the propensity of some students to view the planned unit as a set of obligations rather than their informed design. Too often, students spend so much time and effort on the unit that they believe they have "promised" to provide the instruction just as it was presented in their TWS plan. To some degree, teacher education students assume their supervisors expect them to teach, without deviation, exactly as their plans are stated.

Though that misconception existed before the advent of TWSM, it is even more pronounced now, possibly because of the increased attention to ensuring that all parts of the instructional plan are aligned. Ayres believes faculty need to be even more conscious of this fallacy when students begin to implement their TWSs.

7. *Better use of time.* In Jacqueline Kyle's view, students implementing a TWS use their instructional time better than students in the past. Before, students, when they held no clear outcome in mind for the children, were more likely to be careless with instructional time. The amount of time given to teaching held lower worth because no clear value existed in the endpoint or instructional target in the prospective teacher's mind. Though time is now more carefully monitored, Kyle has noted that students, when planning and implementing TWSs, often try to include too many instructional activities. It may be that as current students attempt to respond to the learning needs of all their pupils, they cram too many learning experiences into their TWS units. Kyle prefers the problem of deciding which aligned activities cannot be implemented because of a lack of time rather than the problem of having an activity unconnected to the rest of the curriculum but with plenty of time to implement it.

8. *Aligned strategies.* Before TWSM was used at Western, students typically prepared lessons and units made up of teaching activities haphazardly aligned with the goals and objectives for their instruction. Often instruction was marked by lessons that seemed unconnected to one another and the stated outcomes. With the inception of TWSM, students regularly discuss the need to provide instruction to build on pupils' current performance in an effort to ensure that they are moved toward attaining the outcomes set for the unit. Christy Perry, who noted this change, indicates that instruction provided by prospective teachers is now more purposeful as they attempt to develop knowledge, skills, or attitudes. Implementation of units is less oriented toward a focus on the teacher's completing a set of steps and is better connected to achieving pupils' outcomes set for the TWS.

9. *Differentiated instruction.* Because contemporary students have preassessed a group of children, Jim Long believes they are more aware of and therefore more likely to employ more than one instructional method to account for the varying performance levels found among their pupils. Before TWSM, students often did not preassess their pupils, or if they did, they often found the data of limited value in refining their instructional decisions. Long also believes many cooperating teachers who were not professionally prepared to use the concepts underlying TWSM often see preassessment as a pointless activity. Such teachers do not provide much support when their teacher education students ask them for advice about constructing a pretest. In Long's opinion, current prospective teachers are more discriminating in selecting instructional strategies for use in the classroom than their predecessors, including many contemporary cooperating teachers.

Assessment

10. *Concrete evidence.* Susan Wood finds that teacher education students believe the data on pupils' learning gains provide concrete evidence supporting the importance of their work. She believes that students before TWSM developed a view of the worth of their teaching that seldom included even a cursory review of their effect on children. Earlier students described their performance as representing good teaching because they asked a certain number of questions, or they provided a large number of positive responses to children, or the bulletin board was particularly attractive, or none of the pupils got into a fight. Previous students developed statements alleging they were successful rather than discussing evidence indicating whether their pupils had made substantial progress toward a socially significant outcome.

11. *Curiosity about children's learning.* With attention on learning gains encouraged by TWSM, Wood believes that teacher education students now exhibit more curiosity about pupils' performance. Current students are better prepared and more predisposed to ask about variables that may have influenced pupils' learning. They are also willing to develop hypotheses about what events were beneficial and those that may have hindered progress in pupils' learning. Before TWSM, prospective teachers focused on themselves and their behaviors and, according to Wood, appeared to be less concerned with pupils' learning performances. Earlier students' curiosity was more likely focused on learning about a clever instructional activity.

Rationale and Reflection

12. *More reflective.* To attest to an increase in reflection among the current teacher education students is not likely to be thought unusual. After all, Western students are expected (required) to develop a statement reflecting on the effectiveness of their TWS unit and pupils' gains. In the past, students wrote a paragraph at the end of their unit discussing "what I learned." But, as Christy Perry has noted, students now have much more to review than in years past. They can now analyze, for example, how effective they were in attending to the preinstructional status of the children as well as the peculiarities of the specific classroom, whether there was a deleterious variance between the pre- and posttests, and how well aligned the instruction was with the outcomes and the assessment strategies. Because current students are steeped in concepts of alignment, context, and learning gains, there is more for teacher education students to reflect on as they review their effectiveness and their pupils' gains.

13. *Well-stated rationale.* Before TWSM, students, when asked why they selected a certain topic for their unit or lesson, expressed less mature statements supporting the necessity of their instruction. With the emphasis of TWSM on alignment with state and district goals and benchmarks, Kyle believes students provide much more persuasive answers about the value of their lessons. Coupled with an attention to preinstructional assessment, students also discuss in their

rationale how a lesson or series of lessons builds on and will extend children's knowledge, skills, and/or attitudes.

14. *Engaged students.* With the significant effort expended in the development, implementation, and evaluation of their TWSs, students are truly enmeshed in making complex professional decisions. Students cannot develop an effective TWS in an evening. It takes a great deal of thought, study, and preparation time to develop all the components of a TWS. Sue Dauer believes that students so involved see themselves and their preparation activities as important. They are, in their minds, engaged in performing a teacher's most important tasks.

15. *Focus on pupils' learning.* In the past, Jim Long contends, student teachers usually judged the effectiveness of their teaching on the degree of involvement their pupils exhibited. Though no one who espouses TWSM denies the value of pupils' engagement in learning, we believe that a more rigorous and compelling standard against which to evaluate one's effectiveness is pupils' learning. Pupils' learning was given limited, if any, attention in the past. The influence of the teacher on children's learning, arguably the most important consideration, was typically ignored in discussing the value and effectiveness of the student's instruction.

GRADUATES' CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE INFLUENCE OF TWSM

The graduates who were interviewed about their views regarding the worth of TWSM in their teaching careers were also asked to respond to an additional set of questions important to Western's College of Education faculty. Graduates' responses to only four questions about TWSM are reported here. The response patterns summarized in the following section include all the negative and positive comments graduates provided.

Recent graduates in elementary and secondary programs were invited to campus to talk about their perceptions. Eight elementary and nine secondary teachers were interviewed. All the graduates who returned to campus had experienced a teacher preparation program in which TWSM was a central component.

The Utility of TWSM During Student Teaching

The graduates were asked to respond to the following statement in their focus group setting: "Describe the usefulness, if any, of work sample methodology during your student teaching practicum." The two most common views expressed (see Table 14.1) indicate that the graduates found

- TWSM helped them to become very focused as teachers. That quality seemed beneficial to them as they progressed through their student teaching. They implied that the focusing was important, because they were clear about what they wanted to accomplish and they knew what evidence was important in helping them to decide whether their goals had been attained.

Table 14.1. What Was the Utility of TWSM During Student Teaching?

Responses from elementary graduates		**Responses from secondary graduates**	
Number of respondents	Comments	Number of respondents	Comments
1	It really forced you to be on task and to attend to deadlines.	1	Made you think.
1	Made us familiar with the material.	2	Made me focus and verbalize a purpose for what I was doing.
1	It really provided a focus for student teaching.	1	I think it's good for curriculum development because you can see it from start to finish. It helps you see the whole, big picture of how you're teaching and what teaching is about.
1	By preparing something like this that was inclusive of many subjects, I was able to feel that it was not only something that I had designed and given birth to. It was my idea. Then I was able to teach in a much better way than if I had just been teaching something out of the book.	1	I had two units ready to go when I started teaching.
1	I am really proud that I accomplished such a big project.		

- The process of developing a TWS aided their understanding of all the parts of complex instructional units. The graduates have the words and concepts to think about and talk about their instructional outcomes and processes.

The Utility of TWSM During the First Year(s) of Teaching

The recent graduates were asked to describe how they saw TWSM influencing their actions as 1st-year teachers (see Table 14.2). Specifically, they were asked to discuss their impressions in response to this question: "Did having experienced work sample methodology contribute to your preparation as a classroom teacher? If yes, how? If no, how not?"

Three important responses came from the recent graduates. First, several mentioned they now knew how to plan, though as practicing teachers they do it in their heads rather than writing anything down. The hope of all teacher preparation program faculty is, of course, that graduates will believe they have the skills to know how to think about preparing instruction. Second, graduates claimed

Table 14.2. What Was the Utility of TWSM During Your First Year(s) of Teaching?

Responses from elementary graduates		**Responses from secondary graduates**	
Number of respondents	Comments	Number of respondents	Comments
1	It was just training for how we do it now.	1	The process. You're thinking of process: "If I'm going to do a unit on . . . then I need to . . . ."
1	It was required to be thematic. It was very helpful when I got my job that I had had that experience.	1	One thing that really helped was learning to write a lesson plan. I formalize my thoughts on a lesson plan and I like that.
1	Everything just happens in my head now. It's just natural now.	1	You see the big picture right out to the end.
1	You need to know how to write lesson plans. Maybe you don't do it every day, but you need to know how to.	1	Quartile analysis. I look at my grades at the end of 6 weeks and kind of do a quartile analysis to find out where all my kids are. If they're all As or all Fs, you know you've done something wonderful or wrong.
3+	It gave us the ability to be able to take all that information–goals, that kind of stuff, objectives–and just be able to internalize it.	1	It helps focus me on why I am teaching this. That was the one thing that stood out as most important.
1	It helped teach us organizational skills, planning skills, integration skills.		
2	Different levels of learning.		
1	The importance of pre- and posttesting.		

they were better organized. They believe they know they need to spend time preparing materials and the educational environment—and they implied they actually do those things. Anyone who has suffered the role of being a new teacher looks back on the many errors made as ones that could usually have been overcome by more insightful planning. Finally, many of the graduates thought they were conscious of the big picture. That is, they understand the relationship between what they do in their classroom and what the rest of the educational system is about, and they know how each of their instructional activities is integral to their educational efforts. The teaching faculty at Western would likely be very pleased with graduates' responses to this question.[2]

Influence of TWSM on Thinking About Learning

The recent graduates were asked to discuss how they thought their experiences in learning about and preparing work samples may have influenced how they think about teaching and learning. Specifically, they were asked, "Describe how teacher work sample methodology influenced the way you think about the practice of teaching."

The responses in Table 14.3 provide a sense that the graduates found TWSM valuable in helping them to organize their thoughts about teaching and providing them with a path as they prepared their teaching activities. Both groups of graduates were clear in stating they understand the interrelationship of planning, assessment, and instruction. They also find comfort in having a clear set of guides about how to think about preparing to teach, that there are certain activities they need to complete to feel prepared for their instructional role. All the concepts and skills graduates reported as associated with TWSM represent important professional skills and very sophisticated self-perceptions.

Table 14.3. How Has TWSM Influenced Your Thinking About Teaching and Learning?

Responses from elementary graduates		**Responses from secondary graduates**	
Number of respondents	Comments	Number of respondents	Comments
1	Everything is connected. We need to find creative ways we can combine.	1	For me it almost formed the way I think about teaching.
4	Pretesting and posttesting.	2	It made me focus on the "whys."
1	Mental organization is great.	2	It's kind of like a recipe, a blueprint.
		1	Work samples kind of motivated me to dream big and try to reach my goals, to make my dreams realities.
		1	Being able to identify in your mind all these things you've been doing and being able to recognize the pattern in your teaching. It's all these things you've been seeing and watching and feeling and just giving them a label and putting a little organization to it that you hadn't thought of before.

Influence of TWSM on Current Teaching Practices

The recent graduates were asked how they thought their experiences with TWSM may have influenced their current teaching practices, if at all. Specifically, they were asked, "In your current practice, what parts of the methodology, if any, are you now using? How have you integrated those parts into your teaching practice?"

The graduates diverged a bit in their responses to this question. People who had graduated from Western's elementary teacher preparation program found the requirement to include an integrated curriculum in their TWSs to be very useful to them (see Table 14.4). They saw the skill as being of value to them in their current teaching positions.

Graduates from Western's teacher preparation programs for middle and high school teachers most commonly find the assessment skills they had acquired as beneficial. Many of the secondary respondents believe their assessment skills

Table 14.4. How Has TWSM Influenced Your Current Teaching Practices?

Responses from elementary graduates		**Responses from secondary graduates**	
Number of respondents	Comments	Number of respondents	Comments
1	I do need to have all those skills I learned. I needed organization, which is so crucial to being able to look like I am able to fly by the seat of my pants. If you're not an organized person, you're not going to know what you need.	2	Pretesting.
3	I teach in blocks around a theme or topic. I try to integrate, particularly, social studies, language arts, and reading. I think it works.	1	I do formulate what I am going to teach after I assess them. I write my final test based on what I see that I've taught them.
3	If you've already done a work sample, it makes it easier to know how to integrate other things.	4	Format.
		1	I do the unit at the time I write my lesson plans.
		1	A lot of mental evaluation is going on.
		2	I also use rubrics.

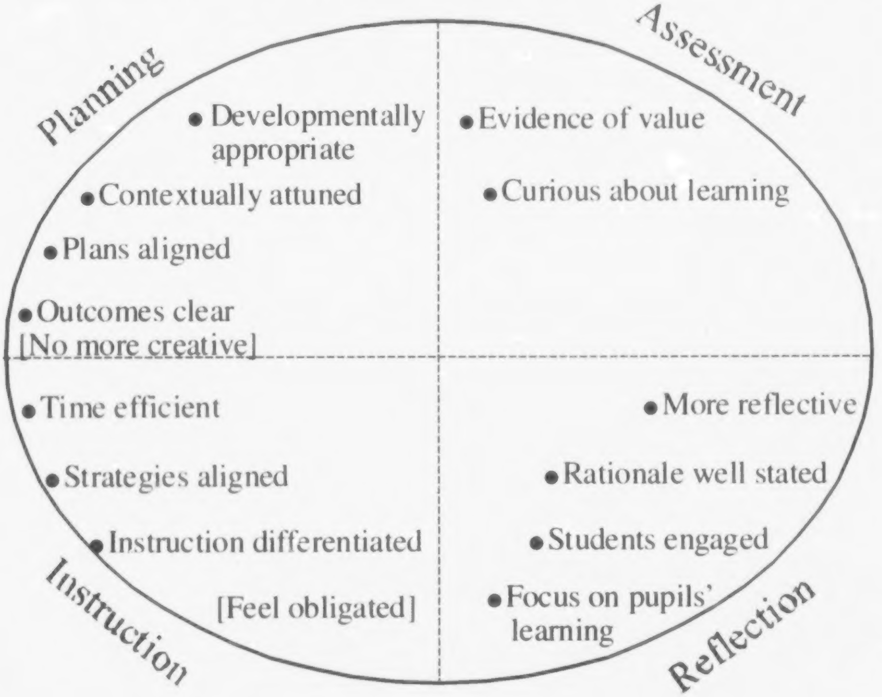
are very practical, and they have been able to embed them in their instructional efforts. The two groups agreed that the organizational skills they learned during the development and implementation of the TWS had turned out to be ones that are very useful to them as classroom teachers.

SUMMARY

Faculty intimately involved with the instruction of teacher education students about TWSM are likely to be positive when asked whether the approach has brought about important changes. Western faculty who were interviewed think their experiences indicate many beneficial gains as a result of TWSM (see Figure 14.1). Though they occasionally express a caveat (the bracketed items in Figure 14.1), it is clear that the faculty had developed strong positive views about the benefits that accrued to their students. Though we lack rigorous empirical evidence to assert that TWSM is worthy of adoption by all teacher educators, we think that Western faculty members' impressions require thoughtful review as one decides whether to employ the model.

When the graduates responded to questions about their views regarding the value of TWSM, three sets of advantages accrued from their experiences. First,

Figure 14.1. The Benefits and Shortcomings of TWSM


Planning
Assessment
• Developmentally appropriate
• Evidence of value
• Contextually attuned
• Curious about learning
• Plans aligned
• Outcomes clear
[No more creative]
• Time efficient
• More reflective
• Strategies aligned
• Rationale well stated
• Instruction differentiated
• Students engaged
[Feel obligated]
• Focus on pupils' learning
Instruction
Reflection

Note. The two bracketed entries were identified as shortcomings. Other bulleted entries were benefits.

they had learned a set of *conceptual structures* for thinking about teaching and learning. They understand the

- Components or parts of their own instructional process as well as the interrelationships among the parts
- Big picture connections or how their instructional activities relate to district, state, and national goals
- Instructional pathways or procedures teachers need to implement to ensure their pupils learn

Second, the graduates have acquired useful *skills or processes for implementing instruction:*

- They know they will continue to use the planning steps, but mentally rather than in a written form.
- The elementary graduates find the skills to develop integrated instructional units important.
- The secondary graduates find the assessment skills they associated with TWSs beneficial to their classroom activities.

Finally, many of the graduates described two traits or *work habits* they had attained or found to be fostered by their work with TWSs:

- Their teaching behaviors are very focused on attaining certain kinds of outcomes.
- Their teaching is marked by their efforts to be well organized.

Given the four types of benefits Western faculty associate with TWSs and the three major advantages Western's teacher education graduates attributed to TWSM, we conclude that the claims for the methodology are supported. Clearly, some of the concepts and skills faculty and graduates attribute to the use of TWSM may likely have accrued using a more traditional approach to teacher preparation; for example, lesson planning skills in TWSM, except for alignment, are not dramatically different from those skills taught for the last 35 years. But we believe many of the benefits identified by the faculty and graduates can be directly attributed to TWSM—a clear focus on preparing and implementing instruction, alignment, the utility of assessment, reflection, clear rationale for instructional decisions, and work habits important to preparation activities.

NOTES

1. Western recently received funds to analyze comparisons between students taught TWSM and those not.
2. Some graduates were not as impressed with their TWS experience. One person, when his group was asked to define a work sample, replied, "A pain in the butt."

Section IV

Teacher Work Sample Methodology in Three Teacher Preparation Programs: Case Studies

Deciding whether to adopt TWSM in one's teacher education program is difficult. Part of the problem is knowing whether all the complexities are understood well enough to be able to complete the task without causing inordinate frustration to one's colleagues and oneself.

This section of the handbook contains case studies describing how faculty in Western's three teacher education programs implement TWSM. Each case study focuses on the decisions made—not on how decisions came to be made or the dynamics of the process.

No new TWSM concepts are introduced in these chapters. Rather, the authors explain how TWSM is introduced, taught, and assessed in their programs. These discussions should be of interest because certain ideas about TWSM may, on the surface, not fit well into a program. For example,

- Accuracy in assessment is difficult to achieve in early childhood education.
- Prospective teachers may view relying on teaching strategies other than lectures in secondary education as being unrealistic.
- Seeking higher level thinking strategies may not seem practicable for those teaching children in special education programs.

The authors of the three chapters in this section explain how they and their colleagues have resolved these other questions in their programs.

The authors of the chapters are Western faculty members who were intimately involved in the development of their programs. Their writings discuss how TWSM was embedded in their preparation programs. They were asked not to focus on the development of other aspects of their programs, such as the selection of practicum sites, grading practices, and course structures. If readers want more information about the day-to-day operation of programs, they should contact the chapter author.

Chapter 15

Teacher Work Sample Methodology in Early Childhood and Elementary Preparation: A Case Study

by David M. A. Wright, Western Oregon University

Teacher work sample methodology (TWSM) is a systematic approach to documenting a student's ability to plan, teach, and assess a series of lessons whose purpose is to help pupils achieve stated goals. In addition, TWSM requires the student to document and analyze changes in pupils' knowledge, understanding, or behavior that resulted from the instruction. Ultimately, TWSM is designed to help students draw connections between their teaching and their pupils' learning.

At Western Oregon, students recommended for licensure must complete at least two work samples in two different classroom settings as part of their teacher preparation program. For most Western general education students, that requirement is met by completing a teacher work sample (TWS) in two separate authorization levels. Currently, authorization levels in Oregon are available in early childhood education (age 3 to Grade 4), elementary education (Grade 3 to Grade 8), middle level education (Grade 5 to Grade 10), and high school education (Grade 7 to Grade 12). While the authorization levels overlap, the intent is to make sure teachers at each level have specialized knowledge and skills and are competent to work with children of that age.

Documenting whether an applicant for licensure has acquired the appropriate knowledge, skills, and competencies is partially met by TWSM. This chapter describes how TWSM can be used for an authorization decision for those seeking an early childhood or elementary education license, what difficulties students experience in completing this task, and what teacher education faculty for those two authorizations can do to help students prepare high-quality TWSs.

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Early childhood has long been considered a special time in a child's life. It is the period when the most physical and cognitive growth occurs. For some scholars, ages 3-9 include the period when children's basic sense of self-worth largely is established. The early childhood period is, then, a critical time that in many ways lays the foundation for future growth, development, and learning.

Teaching children during this critical period has often been viewed as requiring special knowledge, skills, and competencies. In the past, it was thought that early childhood teachers should hold artistic and creative skills as well as the ability to play the piano. It was commonly accepted that a nurturing, patient personality was also essential. Now we recognize that good early childhood educators need to be intelligent, well planned, and insightful about issues related to pupils' learning. Today, we also recognize that teachers of young children need to be well versed in child development.

Most important, contemporary teachers need to understand how to use their knowledge of young children to guide the selection of classroom experiences that lead to further learning. Teachers of young children also need to understand and use knowledge of how children grow to select developmentally appropriate practices and learning goals.

A TWS unit developed to teach children at the early childhood level can be thought of as documentation of instruction to demonstrate the student's ability to state appropriate outcomes, develop appropriate plans, and assess learning in an age appropriate way. It is also expected that when the documentation of teaching skills is completed, students will be able to show that their pupils did indeed learn.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Elementary education in Oregon, as a teaching authorization, has a different licensing definition from that of most states. In Oregon, elementary education covers Grades 3 to 8. Eliminating preschool and primary grades from the authorization allows for a sharper professional focus on middle childhood or the preadolescent years.

The middle childhood years are times of dramatic cognitive, physical, and emotional change. Cognitively, the children are moving from being trapped intellectually by the here and now. They are also developing an ability to think symbolically. For the first time, learning about historical events and abstract concepts such as place value and people and places far away can be meaningful. Physically, such children are losing their baby fat and features. Children are ready to learn specific physical skills, rules, and the competition involved with sports. Emotionally, middle childhood youth are growing less dependent on parents and teachers and relying more on peers for emotional support and comparison.

The middle childhood years open many new learning potentials. Curricular expectations can become more abstract. Learning can become less hands on and more dependent on paper-and-pencil or class discussion activities. It is still important for the teacher to be concrete and relevant while introducing new content, yet it is now possible to move on to the abstract.

Curriculum can now include a focus on subject matter. Though the integration of curriculum still seems important, it is now possible to effectively fragment parts of a unit for more in-depth study.

A work sample for a candidate for an elementary or early childhood license serves to demonstrate the student's ability to state or select appropriate outcomes, plans, and learning assessments. It is also expected that after the TWS has been taught, the student will be able to show that the pupils did indeed learn.

TEACHER WORK SAMPLE COMPONENTS

To adequately demonstrate one's knowledge and understanding of children, the TWS must be systematically prepared. Each TWS must contain at least the following elements:

- Description of the context
- Rationale
- Goals and objectives
- Assessment procedures
- Instructional plans
- Data display and interpretation
- Reflection

The following discussion addresses the difficulties early childhood and elementary education students typically experience as they design each component. It also suggests strategies teacher educators can use to help their students become successful in the preparation of their TWSs.

Description of the Context

The first section of the TWS is designed to clearly describe the setting or context in which teaching occurred. A description of the community and its uniqueness should be included. The school should be described in terms of the neighborhood(s) it serves. Last, it should include a detailed description of the classroom and its pupils.

The purpose of this TWS section is to ensure students are aware of the surroundings where they teach. They are responsible for knowing not only descriptors of the community and its socioeconomic status but also its cultural values and norms. The development of the context description gives students the opportunity to develop an understanding of, at some depth, and a sensitivity to the world where their pupils live.

The description of the context appears first because it provides a base for the development of the other components of the TWS. All the other segments of the work sample need to be built with insight about the community. Students need to filter curricular decisions through their analysis of the setting as they develop a topic, establish outcomes, and create instructional plans. School and community serve as a foundation on which children's learning will be built.

Gathering information about the setting is new for most prospective teachers. They need to be taught how to do it. They need to know where to go to gather the information about the community and neighborhood. They also need to know how to investigate their school, its resources, and its pupils. These sets of information can and should influence their teaching.

To help students with this task, teacher educators need to cite resources students can investigate to gather information. Invaluable sources include documents from a chamber of commerce, the local school district, Title I applications, and reports from special education offices. Students need to be encouraged to interview their cooperating teachers to acquire demographic information about pupils in the class. Most important, teacher educators need to teach beginning professionals the link between a child's experiences outside school and a child's learning inside school. Citing information similar to that often found in a sociology course, such as findings about socioeconomic and gender influences on learning, will help students become more insightful teachers.

Rationale

The purpose for the rationale in a TWS is to allow students to explain, among other decisions, the reasons for their choice of the unit's topic. The aim of a TWS is that it be taught because its outcomes are appropriate to the children and are related to district and state goals. In the rationale, students also justify the selection of their goals and objectives as well as their choice of instructional and assessment strategies.

Prospective teachers are also expected to elaborate on the significance of the topic chosen to the particular children being taught. While it is important that prospective teachers understand that there must be a relationship between the topic and classroom, building, district, and state goals, there must also be thoughtful discussion about why this topic is appropriate for these children.

In a TWS designed for an early childhood classroom, students often opt for topics that can at best be described as fluff and at worst as a waste of time. Students need to be encouraged to select topics that engage children's minds (Katz & Chard, 1989). The understandable fear of those seeking to enter the profession is that they will become overly academic. That anxiety often results in the development of a unit that is too simplistic or even frivolous. Teacher educators need to help early childhood prospective teachers avoid the fallacy of emphasizing process to the neglect of content in the curriculum. Indeed, teacher education students must understand that engaging content, presented in an appropriate way, is what young children need most.

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Prospective elementary education teachers, on the other hand, often opt for topics that can at best be described as overly academic and at worst as trivial and boring. Prospective elementary classroom teachers need to be encouraged to think of topics that engage children's minds and allow for integration of many subject matters. People who are just entering the profession often emphasize narrowly defined, specific academic skills in their TWS, such as division of a distinct kind of fraction or a single punctuation skill. Teacher educators need to help prospective elementary teachers avoid the fallacy of emphasizing content to the neglect of process in the curriculum. Indeed, students must understand that providing engaging, appropriate content and process is what children need most.

Another problem is oversell in the rationale segment of the TWS. When trying to justify the selection of a topic, students often argue that if children do not learn the topic, they will be doomed to academic failure. There is hardly a topic for which such an alarming justification exists. Teacher educators need to help students become realistic about the value of their chosen topic and avoid describing it as something essential for everyone's future happiness. A more rational view is encouraged when teacher educators present curriculum information about K-12 schools in a way that reinforces the notion that content should be integrated and is sometimes best learned nonsequentially. The rationale must also include a discussion of how the unit of instruction facilitates cognitive, affective, and psychomotor growth. It must be clear in the student's mind what specific benefit this unit has for these children. In what ways will these children grow as a result of their participation?

To explain how a unit will meet the needs of children, students must understand child growth and development. While most prospective early childhood and elementary teachers have a grasp of children's emotional development and the need for nurturing, they are less likely to understand cognitive and physical development. Students often misunderstand what cognitive development is all about. For many teachers, cognitive development and academic learning are synonymous. They think that to be cognitively challenging, their instruction should focus directly on teaching academic skills. It is difficult for students to understand that cognitive development does not depend on academic skills; in fact, it is the other way around. Cognitive development depends on and is fostered by the continuing opportunity to solve real and relevant problems appropriate to the children being taught.

In addition, prospective teachers must discuss how the unit facilitates higher level conceptualization. Teachers must address in the rationale the ways by which they intend that children will grow in the depth of their understanding of the topic. The expectation that they will foster higher level thought is a difficult concept for most prospective early childhood teachers. Many such students do not believe that young children are capable of complex intellectual processes. They think young children can deal only with processes and facts and think about things at only very low levels of intellectual complexity. While it is certainly true that young children are not yet ready to think about abstract concepts or the long ago and far away, they are quite capable of serious pondering of the here and now and the real and relevant.

Prospective elementary teachers also commonly misunderstand the abilities of children in the middle years. This developmental time frame is often seen as a point for memorizing math facts and algorithms, spelling words, and scientific names and facts. Some prospective teachers see this acquisition of memorized information as a foundation for future learning in the various subject matter areas. The teacher educator needs to help teacher education students understand the changing cognitive capabilities of this age group through exploration of developmental learning theories.

Both early childhood and elementary teachers need to understand the importance of providing children with opportunities to explore their world, leading to growing conceptualizations that become increasingly adult-like. Helping the neophyte professional realize the importance of exploration is one of the greatest challenges teacher educators face.

Finally, students use the rationale section of the TWS to explain the design of the unit, telling why the unit was designed the way it was. Why did it start where it did, progress as it did, and end the way it did? What were the bases for each of these decisions?

In this last segment of the rationale, students should also discuss their efforts to include children in decision making. They should present evidence that one of the first steps in the unit's development was a discussion with the children about their interests and that they used that information in planning and developing the unit. Students are also expected to provide opportunities throughout the unit for the children to make choices such as what to study, when to study it, and how to share what they learned. Experience suggests that children, when provided a set of opportunities, will select a choice that is appropriate to their developmental status. New teachers find that pupils will usually select activities where they are most likely to succeed. For a novice teacher, providing children such opportunities has many obvious advantages.

To help students learn how to provide choices, teacher educators need to model what is expected. That means teacher educators should provide opportunities in class for their students to indicate their interests. They should allow students to choose what to study in depth, based on personal need or interest. And they should provide a variety of ways for students to share what they have learned, including the use of tests, papers, presentations, and displays.

All the information students provide in the rationale allows them to demonstrate their understanding of how to make appropriate curricular choices for children in an early childhood or elementary setting.

Goals and Objectives

In the TWS section on goals and objectives, students are expected to clearly define what the children in their classroom will know or be able to do as a result of the unit. Typically, prospective students list and explain three or four overall goals for the unit. The student is then expected to demonstrate the ability to clearly identify the objectives that emanate from those goals. Objectives are expected to vary in kind and complexity and to demonstrate the student's ability to set objectives that help children become more capable in a variety of ways. The unit's objectives are very important, because they serve as the basis for pre- and postassessment and, as such, are used to focus the documentation of learning gains.

Preparing instructional objectives is a particularly troublesome area for prospective early childhood and elementary teachers. Both are usually not sure where to start. It is important that teacher educators make students aware of the variety of expectations for the curriculum. Western students spend time in the university's curriculum lab becoming familiar with textbook expectations, school district curricula, and state guidelines and benchmarks. Students are encouraged to use these information sources as a foundation for building their goal statements. Our prospective teachers are also encouraged to use information about the children they are teaching and the community they serve to help select their outcomes. Finally, students are expected to consult with the classroom teacher to verify the appropriateness of the goals and objectives being developed.

The thoughtful development of standards for pupils' performance is something that students have likely never witnessed. For many students, it is difficult to appreciate selecting and constructing objectives as the beginning of the planning process. Rather, many think of the statement of expectations as something to be tacked on to the end of a plan. To help overcome this misperception, teacher educators should model for students lesson development that starts with goals and objectives. In addition, teacher educators should consistently show students the goals for their courses as well as the objectives for individual class sessions. Students need to see examples of the use of objectives for lesson development.

For both early childhood and elementary teachers, a second area of difficulty in writing TWS objectives occurs when selecting the criterion level. For those in early childhood education, objectives are often seen as static, one-size-fits-all expectations that do not coincide with the students' beliefs in a child-centered program honoring the vast developmental differences in children at this young age. It is difficult for prospective early childhood teachers to think of expecta-

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tions for their pupils, expectations that go beyond making sure the children have fun and like them as teachers.

Developmentally appropriate expectations for children are also hard for prospective teachers to grasp. (Even professionals with years of experience find it difficult to identify appropriate expectations.) Prospective early childhood teachers find it difficult to select a criterion that is appropriate for all developmental levels. They are concerned that by stating a criterion level, the teacher is setting some children up for failure. The nurturing, pupil-centered early childhood teacher encounters a moral conflict. The teacher educator's job is to help students resolve the dilemma. How can a teacher state a specific criterion that will not frustrate some children and be too simple for others? The solution is to help students understand that rather than creating an objective that requires all children to hit a static target, an objective can ask that all pupils meet a target appropriate for individual children in the classroom. The criterion level can be adapted to fit what is realistic for certain groups or individuals.

Another solution for prospective early childhood teachers is to learn to use preassessment information to guide the development of their objectives. For instance, students might be encouraged to think of objectives in which the criterion directs that improvement be sought; i.e., "Using preassessment data as a baseline, the children will each increase the number of ways they can categorize rocks; . . . will increase their score on the posttest; . . . will increase the number of ways they can display data."

The emphasis on increasing skills and abilities frees up the objective criterion to be appropriate for all children. Instead of expecting everyone to meet a set standard, each child works to meet a moving target that is always somewhat out of reach but, at the same time, is something all children can strive toward. While advocates of the standards-based movement may disagree with this approach, the early childhood community suggests that this approach is more appropriate during these younger years.

For the prospective elementary teacher, a common conflict is how to set a criterion that is objective and not subjective. During the elementary years, when growth has slowed and developmental differences are less obvious, it becomes more appropriate to construct objectives that we can expect most, if not all, children to meet. Setting the criterion for objectives should be guided by knowledge of district and state expectations as well as insights about the class and pupils' respective abilities. This approach can result in a more suitable criterion for the objectives in a TWS.

Assessment Procedures

The assessment procedures section of the TWS is used to describe the methods and materials used for pre- and postassessment of the children in terms of the established objectives. Pre- and postassessment data are to be collected for each individual child. If a very time-consuming procedure is used, such as an interview, then a random sample of pupils is acceptable.

The purpose of the assessment is to document change in knowledge, skill, understanding, or behavior thought to be related to the instructional experiences provided in the TWS. Stated another way, the assessment is to determine how much learning occurred relative to the TWS unit outcomes. Those outcomes, with which instructional methods and materials are also to be aligned, become the central focus for determining the influence of teaching on pupils' learning. They are the pivotal point for determining learning gains. To establish learning gains, it is important that students know where each child is before instruction and then again after instruction.

It is hard for many new professionals to understand assessment from this perspective. Experience has indicated to them that assessment is done only at the end of instruction and for the purpose of assigning a grade or some other evaluative label. Clarifying the switch in paradigm from grading pupils to the dual task of assessing for feedback and planning and for investigating the teacher's effectiveness is the job of the teacher educator.

Both prospective early childhood and elementary teachers need to learn that preassessment is part of the planning process. It is not unusual for students to finalize all their plans and then preassess the pupils. One strategy to help students make their assessment information utilitarian is to require the collection of preassessment data before allowing the development of the student's TWS plans. Working individually with students to analyze their data and what it means for their planning can be very helpful in portraying the paradigm shift. Once students see that the preassessment data can help guide their planning, they are more likely to understand the importance of the information.

Another problem is the difficulty of developing good assessment procedures that accurately measure pupils' achievement. According to Linda Darling-Hammond, "In terms of measuring student learning, the TWSM is dependent on the quality of the assessments teachers can devise on their own; these can be highly variable and may fail to evaluate important kinds of learning well" (1998, pp. 471-472). For all teachers, new or experienced, developing good assessments is a challenging endeavor. The teacher educator's job is to help students understand the principles of high-quality assessment. In early childhood education, high-quality assessment is even more challenging to attain than at almost any other educational level. Young children grow and develop so rapidly that any assessment is but a snapshot and may not reflect the true abilities. Even so, prospective early childhood teachers need to acquire an understanding of the variety of approaches to assessment that can be effectively used with younger children.

Students preparing to teach at the elementary level also need to be aware of and capable of using a variety of assessment techniques lest they assume assessment is to rely on written recall activity only. While both sets of candidates are aware of paper-and-pencil approaches to assessment, they are usually not well versed in assessment procedures such as interviews, observations, anecdotal records, scoring guides, or portfolios. They need to understand these alternatives and how they can provide achievement snapshots over time that exhibit some degree of accuracy in portraying changes in pupils' abilities. To achieve such measurement skills requires considerable time and instruction from the teacher educator. Each assessment procedure needs to be taught with adequate time given for practice and feedback. The students must also be taught when each procedure is useful and why. Skillful teacher educators incorporate many of these assessment strategies in their own courses as a way of modeling their uses.

Teacher educators need to help new professionals begin their journey toward becoming skillful assessors. The journey is long and slow. Nevertheless, the time and effort is worthwhile, because through good assessment procedures, students will begin making the connection between their work and children's learning.

Instructional Plans

The TWS is also to be used to demonstrate students' ability to plan for instruction using a variety of teaching approaches. Students enjoy this creative part of the TWS because it is for the joy of instructing that most of them enter the teaching field.

Western students are expected to use a lesson plan format that requires them to think through all the parts of good instruction. They are to develop a measurable objective. They are to provide an engaging opening for the lesson and step-by-step procedures for taking their pupils through the lesson, including estimated time allotments for each step. The students must also identify how they will close the lesson. Finally, they must state how they will determine the lesson's effectiveness.

Students often experience difficulty stating lesson objectives. Too often they focus on the procedures of the lesson and ignore or minimize the importance of identifying a purpose for all the activity. The teacher educator's job is to help students focus, at the beginning of the planning process, on what is to be the outcome of their lessons. It can be done by providing practice for students in writing instructional objectives. Once a series of objectives has been created, the teacher educator can demonstrate how these objectives can be used to guide instructional planning. Experience suggests that when students are forced to start with a well-thought-through objective, they are freed up to develop creatively an instructional procedure for their pupils.

Western students are encouraged to write plans that involve a variety of instructional procedures. Plans are expected to show their understanding of such teaching strategies as learning centers, cooperative learning, discussion, discovery, lecture, field trips, guest speakers, and technology. The advantages of including a variety of strategies in a TWS include an opportunity to (a) demonstrate one's proficiency is using multiple teaching techniques, (b) provide an approach that is developmentally appropriate for each child, and (c) provide a least one strategy that builds on each child's needs and interests. An array of procedures are taught as part of Western's instructional methodology classes. Faculty are expected to help Western students learn about the appropriate use of many procedures.

In early childhood where the emphasis so often is on the process, prospective teachers enjoy coming up with procedures that allow their children the opportunity to explore in a hands-on environment. The trick for most of them, though, is to remember to teach something to the children before sending them off to explore. So often teacher education students' plans are rife with detail about what the children will do but lacking in thought about what the candidate will do. Prospective teachers usually want their pupils to become actively engaged but too often give little thought about how to prepare their pupils to explore so they are not frustrated and can be successful learners. The teacher educator's job, then, is to constantly remind those preparing to become early childhood teachers that their role is not just to provide engaging activities for children but also to teach them something. It is not enough to keep the children busy. They must be involved in something that is new to them, something that increases their capability and requires teaching.

The difficulty prospective elementary teachers often experience during instructional planning is providing enough information in their TWSs. They often feel that because they know what they are going to do, there is no need to write it down. The truth is, however, they often do not know fully what they are going to do and regularly find themselves winging it for part of the lesson. Teacher educators must demonstrate for their students how to clearly write the procedures they plan to follow while teaching lessons. The importance of expecting clear plans must be made apparent to students. They need to thoroughly think through all that will happen. Although changes may be necessary while implementing a lesson, beginning professionals need to be well prepared by thinking through and writing down what it is they plan to do.

Data Display and Interpretation

Prospective teachers display and interpret the data collected through pre- and postassessment in their TWSs. The data must be displayed in such a way that information is available about each child (or randomly selected children). Children's scores are to be clustered, depending on their preassessment performance. Numerical information is to show individuals' and the group's changes from the pre- to the postassessment (see Table 15.1 for a suggested format). In

Table 15.1. Analyzing Data From a Teacher Education Class

Student SSN	Pretest score	Posttest score	Gain	Average		
				Pretest	Posttest	Gain
543 __ ____	10	15	5	10.0	16.0	6.0
542 __ ____	10	16	6			
543 __ ____	10	17	7			
540 __ ____	8	14	6	6.7	15.0	8.3
541 __ ____	7	13	6			
542 __ ____	7	absent	--			
544 __ ____	7	17	10			
540 __ ____	7	15	8			
231 __ ____	6	15	9			
541 __ ____	6	18	12			
540 __ ____	6	13	7			
542 __ ____	5	16	11	4.5	13.1	8.6
540 __ ____	5	14	9			
543 __ ____	5	9	4			
547 __ ____	5	15	10			
549 __ ____	4	11	7			
543 __ ____	4	14	10			
541 __ ____	4	10	6			
365 __ ____	4	16	12			
542 __ ____	3	8	5	2.0	11.8	9.8
544 __ ____	3	18	15			
542 __ ____	1	11	10			
542 __ ____	1	10	9			

addition, students are to interpret and discuss the results. They are expected to discuss why the results might be as they are for both individual children and clusters of children. Finally, they must interpret what the results mean for children and for themselves as teachers, including how this information can be used in future planning.

Fortunately, most pupils' scores after a TWS improve. Through the comparison activity, students begin to see the impact they likely have had on their pupils. Once they have data that indicate they really can help children, most students describe the experience of analyzing learning gains as empowering. Collecting these data and the ensuing interpretation and discussion help prospective teachers make the paradigm shift from viewing themselves as a person who provides fun activities to someone who has the responsibility and the skills to help children learn.

One way to help students learn about data displays and interpretations is to conduct a pre- and postassessment of their knowledge about some topic the teacher educator will shortly teach. For example, during one of the first days of class, I administer a preassessment explaining, first, why it is being given. Toward the end of the term, I administer the postassessment and display the results in a cluster format. I use social security numbers instead of the students' names to show a way to provide confidentiality. Then I discuss the results with the students so as to model what is expected of them in their TWSs. For example, I explore why one student may not have improved as much as might be expected. The class is invited to speculate why one cluster of students performs better than another. Finally, we discuss what these scores mean in terms of accomplishing my course objectives and how this information might be useful the next time the course is taught.

Reflection

In the final section of the TWS, reflection, students are given the opportunity to honestly and thoughtfully discuss how things went while teaching their units. They are asked to discuss the planning, teaching, and assessing procedures used. All students are expected to reflect on what went particularly well and what things would be changed or avoided if done again.

The purpose of the reflection section is to have students demonstrate their ability to become introspective teachers. Early childhood teachers sometimes have a tendency to be flowery in this section, to talk about how wonderful the children were and how much fun everyone had. While a bit of this approach is useful, teacher educators need to encourage their students to use professional writing and analytical skills as they prepare the reflection. Students need to focus on the planning they did and the degree to which they took into consideration the needs of the children. They should discuss instructional strategies used and whether they were developmentally appropriate. Finally, they should include a thoughtful reflection on the assessment strategies used and the results achieved.

SUMMARY

TWSM in an early childhood or elementary teacher preparation setting has its own specific difficulties. Many problems arise for students as they struggle to make developmentally appropriate decisions about children and, at the same time, try to meet the expectations of TWSM. It is the teacher educator's responsibility to help students understand that the two are not diametrically opposed. Students need to understand that a developmentally appropriate classroom is exactly the kind of setting where children are successful in learning and the gains achieved are related to the student's work. Connecting pupils' learning to the teacher's work is what TWSM is all about.

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Chapter 16

Teacher Work Sample Methodology in Middle Level/High School Preparation: A Case Study

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Students entering the middle and high school teacher preparation programs at Western have a 4-term sequence of course work and field experiences that, upon successful completion, lead to a recommendation for initial licensure as a beginning teacher. Students seeking admission into the general teacher preparation programs (which include early childhood and elementary) will have completed all, or almost all, of their academic major and elective coursework before applying to the College of Education. Admission to the teacher preparation program is competitive, with successful students presenting a combination of academic achievement (through cumulative grade point average, recommendations from faculty), documented successful experience with children (through volunteer work, camp counseling, practicum experiences), and personal attributes (commitment to the profession, interpersonal skills) demonstrated through an interview with the teacher preparation faculty.

Each academic quarter, approximately 64 students begin the 4-quarter sequence. Each group of 64 students includes those intending to teach at all levels, from preschool to Grade 12. Several general education endorsements (mathematics, science, health, physical education, social science, language arts, and foreign languages) are included among principally middle and secondary school candidates. The 4-term sequence of experiences is arranged with a combination of on-campus courses and supervised field experiences. Field experiences increase in duration, expectation, and intensity as the sequence of courses unfolds. During the first term of the program, students from all four authorization levels spend a minimum of 10 hours per week observing and participating in classrooms at all levels. For example, a student intending to teach high school chemistry spends time observing a middle school classroom, an elementary level classroom, and a preschool classroom as well as high school classroom. Correspondingly, students intending to teach preschool or early elementary grades observe and/or participate in a middle level and high school classroom. Western faculty believe such experiences provide students with a context for their pupils and reinforce the concept that education is a seamless process rather than a series of discrete, loosely connected classes or grades one passes through during one's academic life.

The teacher training program at Western Oregon University is proficiency based. That means students are expected to demonstrate increasing levels of proficiency in each of 14 areas as they move through each term in their program. The 14 proficiencies that make up the Western Oregon teacher preparation program are as follows:

1. Plan instruction that supports pupils' progress in learning and is appropriate for the child's developmental level.
2. Develop an understanding and ability to apply knowledge of developmental psychology at the level of instruction.
3. Demonstrate knowledge of subject matter and ability to organize curriculum and instruction to support pupils' understanding of subject matter.
4. Exhibit technological literacy in both teacher productivity and integration of technology in classroom learning.
5. Establish a classroom climate conducive to learning.
6. Engage pupils in planned learning activities.
7. Evaluate, act upon, and report pupils' progress in learning.
8. Function as a reflective practitioner.
9. Articulate and apply a philosophy of education that is appropriate to the children in the authorization level.
10. Exhibit professional behaviors, ethics, and values.
11. Exhibit professional leadership and development.
12. Communicate effectively through professional speaking.
13. Communicate effectively in professional writing.
14. Work collaboratively with others.

Each proficiency has six benchmark levels with descriptors of behaviors or attributes expected for each level. The levels are *beginning, emerging, developing, maturing, strong,* and *exemplary.* (These descriptors are used throughout the book in tables used to rate students' work; see, e.g., Tables 3.5 and 13.1.) Movement from the course work in term 1 to terms 2, 3, and 4 depends on the student's demonstrations for each of the 14 proficiencies. Upon exiting the teacher preparation program, students are expected to demonstrate at least *maturing* levels in all 14 proficiencies. Such an expectation reinforces the notion that teaching, and education, is a lifelong process and that a teacher is not "finished" when he or she leaves Western to take a first classroom.

The proficiency-based teacher preparation program at Western requires many entering students to change their mind-set about teaching and learning. As of this writing, education in the United States seems in transition, with movement toward a standards-based approach. Many students applying for admission to the College of Education are the products or consumers of a "traditional" educational system, in which one took a specified number of courses and compiled credit hours based on attendance and grades. These students, it could be argued, were being prepared to teach the way they were taught—to move into classrooms and teach discrete content that may or may not be connected with other aspects of the district or state curricula. Upon entry into

Western's teacher preparation program, students begin to realize that such an approach is no longer in use in Oregon. Students who have had a lengthy and successful history of performing in a traditional system are now in a program that depends less on the grades they receive and more on the *demonstration* of a series of specified behaviors and skills (the 14 proficiencies). These students now must demonstrate what they know and can do at increasing levels of competence or proficiency if they are to progress from one term to the next and ultimately to receive a recommendation for a teaching authorization. The teacher work sample (TWS), a major component of this process, provides students the opportunity and the mechanism through which they each demonstrate increasing levels of competence as they move through the proficiencies and the 4-term course sequence.

During the first term, students participate in coursework centered on issues in child and adolescent development, learning, integrating technological applications into instruction, and the expectations and realities of being a teacher. This initial term is viewed as early exposure to teaching and a context-setting series of experiences that prepare students for continuation in the program. As students move from term 1 to term 2, the level of instruction and focus sharpens, and they begin actual teaching experiences.

During term 2, students begin to work on the pieces of a TWS and are expected to have successfully completed a trial work sample by the end of the term. On-campus course work centers on aspects of assessment and instruction. Activities are designed to teach the components of teaching and thus the work sample. Additionally, level content-area-related material for the second authorization level is presented to authorization-specific groups of students. In other words, professional content and methodology are integrated. For example, students intending to teach mathematics and/or science in middle or high school receive instruction and experiences in developing and writing lesson objectives and instruction specific to mathematics and/or science teaching methodology as well. They practice and present individual components of the work sample.

The field experience for term 2 is structured so that students spend more time in a school. Each student is assigned to a specific school and cooperating teacher. During this term, students are assigned to classes consistent with their second authorization and content area choices, with a week-long, full-time practicum planned during the latter part of the term. It is during this time that students implement the TWS they have been preparing during on-campus classes. Faculty from the teacher training program supervise development of the work sample components and provide the students' instructional activities around the TWS.

Term 3 is a continuation of the instructional activities and experiences from term 2. The field placement continues, with each student participating in classrooms at their second authorization level. For example, if a student is seeking authorization to teach middle and high school health and physical education, the prospective teacher is placed at the second authorization level choice (high school) for student teaching during this third term. In this example, the student might then be placed in a middle school health/PE class for the fourth term for the second student teaching experience. Included in this former placement experience is the requirement of a 2- to 5-week teaching responsibility and a full work sample reflecting that teaching. During the latter part of term 3, students shift placement to their first choice in authorization levels (in the example above, the student would move from a high school classroom to an eighth-grade health/PE class at the district's middle school). This shift during term 3 is intended to provide the student with the opportunity to "settle" into a placement and to become familiar with the cooperating teacher, the student body, and the expectations of the placement in preparation for the full student teaching experience during the fourth and final term of the program.

During term 4, each prospective teacher teaches full time in his or her first choice of authorization level. University teacher training program faculty, the cooperating teacher, and, if provided, the school district's regional site coordinator supervise and support students. During this full-time student teaching experience, each prospective teacher completes a final TWS, designed to demonstrate and document the ability to teach and foster pupils' learning. In addition, the student teacher assumes full responsibility of the classroom for 2 to 5 weeks. The remainder of this chapter describes some of the salient aspects of teacher work sample methodology (TWSM) in terms of teaching the components of the work sample and the issues related to its use in the context of the teacher preparation program for those seeking middle level and/or secondary level authorization.

IMPLEMENTATION OF TEACHER WORK SAMPLE METHODOLOGY IN MIDDLE LEVEL/HIGH SCHOOL SETTINGS

The implementation of TWSM in secondary education settings has both advantages and disadvantages with regard to early childhood, elementary, or special education settings. For example, it is an advantage (at least to many students) that the curricula and typical classroom settings in most middle and high schools are set up around a content area. That is, students will teach Spanish or a unit in economics or a unit on gravity in an earth science class. If students will teach integrated subjects in a block schedule, the TWS unit is still generally content specific. This configuration allows for some ease in planning the unit and implementing instruction and assessment for the TWS. Disadvantages may arise when the student teacher's cooperating teacher is unfamiliar with the requirements and components of the work sample or is actively indifferent (if not hostile) to the notion of a TWS. While every attempt is made to place student teachers with mentoring teachers who model best practices in a standards-based educational setting, the reality is that it cannot always occur. Sometimes a mismatch occurs as a result of bad luck and the student teacher ends up inappropriately placed; other times the mismatch occurs because of factors beyond control, such as the student teacher's chosen content area and possible sites narrowing the range of potential choices for cooperating teachers. In a semirural setting, such as Western's, the search for ideal practicum settings may have to cease before one can be found.

Middle/high school level prospective teachers prepare a final TWS during their full-time student teaching experience. This is the opportunity for the student teacher to demonstrate what he or she has learned and can demonstrate in terms of delivering content and instructional activities to a class with the intent of fostering learning for those children. It can be a stressful experience for the prospective teacher, who may perceive (and rightfully so) that assessment of the TWS and the accompanying attention to pupils' learning are a high-stakes enterprise. Certainly, the prospective teacher is aware that university faculty will make a recommendation for licensure authorization at the completion of student teaching and that the TWS is one part, possibly a large part, of the information taken into account in making that recommendation. In middle and high school settings containing well-defined content area boundaries, it is relatively easy to design instructional units with objectives and activities focusing on higher order thinking skills. It is somewhat more difficult, however, to assess the impact of these higher order objectives and activities on pupils' learning because of the short period of time the unit is taught and the potential difficulty in assessing the outcomes of these higher order activities. When student teachers perceive the TWS carries high stakes, they may attempt to design instructional units with objectives that speak to lower level thinking with the intent of documenting pupils' learning gains more readily. Such an instance requires some skill on the part of the university supervisor and, ideally, the cooperating teacher in helping students navigate their way through the seemingly competing demands of the training program and the perceived reality of the setting.

Finally, certain practical, mundane factors can affect prospective teachers' preparation and implementation of TWSs during student teaching. Many university supervisors and former student teachers have remarked on the difficulty of keeping records in secondary education settings and on the effects that pupils' attendance (as one example) can have on the demonstration of learning gains during the implementation of the TWS. If pupils are not in class during the pre- and/or postassessments, or if attendance during class sessions is inconsistent, then the learning gains reported at the conclusion of the instructional unit may be adversely affected.

At this point, a reasonable question for teacher education students to ask is Why do this stuff? If it is fraught with these disadvantages and the potential for inappropriate use, why bother? Western's faculty believe that through the activities involved in implementing a work sample (planning, developing, assessing, adjusting, instructing, assessing, analyzing, interpreting, and reflecting), student teachers are engaged in activities that are as close as possible to what practicing teachers actually do. We contend that this process is what teachers do when they plan instructional units. Certainly, experienced teachers do not do many of these steps overtly; much planning, at least according to research (see, for example, McCutcheon, 1980; Searcy & Maroney, 1996; Westerman, 1991), is done mentally. In our view, the TWS provides a framework for that planning as well as the opportunity for teacher preparation faculty to observe overt examples of the planning and other operations that may, at some later date, become covert activities.

Evidence from our own work supports this contention. We recently completed focus group interviews with former students who are now in their 3rd to 5th years of teaching. Among the questions asked of them were ones regarding the utility of the work sample. In general, the former students grudgingly accepted the work sample process as part of student teaching (it is a lot of work and requires a great deal of planning and record keeping); their responses about the long-term effects indicate lasting influence on their current teaching practice:

> Knowing how to do them—I think you should do one. I really do think that you should do one, so that you can see—okay, "I've got a lesson plan, now I have to have activities, I have to have a test, I have to have a way to reach closure each day." . . . By doing one, I think it was a good exercise. Three and four were an exercise in futility, as far as I'm concerned. But the first one is important, so you can say, "This is what a lesson looks like. I have to have an introduction; I have to have progression to the end; I have to have a way to evaluate it." And I think that the experience once is very good.
>
> Work samples. To this day, that's the one thing that's stuck with me—while I'm thinking of things to do in class I think, "Why? What's the relevance? Why do this? Who cares if they know when the War of 1812 started?" What it helps me to do is say, "What is the applicability; what is the relevance; why am I doing it?" And I still do it to this day.
>
> I do a unit at a time when I write my lesson plan. I'll sit down and write up a whole unit. I go through some of the procedures from the work sample mentally: the goals—I'll look over my material and I'll say, "Okay, here's what I want them to learn." As I develop my lesson I'm always constantly keeping in mind, "What kind of activities do I want them to be doing that's going to reinforce what I've taught them?" . . . I write my evaluations based on "Does this really adequately evaluate what I've been presenting to them or not? Is this really proving their knowledge of this language or ability to use the language in all five of the benchmarks for a foreign language?" That's almost a step-by-step thing work sample wise, but you won't see a work sample

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> format. A lot of it is a mental evaluation as I go along." (Ayres, McConney, Schalock, Cutherbertson, & Bartelheim, 1997)

INSTRUCTION IN TWSM FOR MIDDLE AND HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL EDUCATION

The following sections describe the process for instructing about the planning, preparation, implementation, and presentation of a TWS for those who seek to become middle or high school teachers. The content is written as it is for students receiving instruction on the components of a TWS. Appendix R provides excerpts from the TWS prepared by a candidate student teaching Spanish at a middle school. The excerpts are intended to illustrate the points developed throughout this chapter.

Planning the Unit

A unit is a collection of lessons. Its purpose is to help teachers organize and sequence instruction. Because units package individual lessons, they represent a very important teaching skill. There are various ways to organize a unit, depending on the content and the types of materials that are to be integrated into your instruction. In language arts, units can be organized according to, for example, literary genre, particular authors' works, or common themes. Social science units can be organized, for instance, chronologically or according to a theme or a particular historical phenomenon. Science units can be organized around topics of interest (such as birds) or sequentially. There is no right or wrong way to organize your unit: Be creative. The following steps should help with your initial planning:

1. *Select the materials (text, book, body of information).* From your topic map (see the box "The Design and Use of Topic or Concept Maps in Work Sample Methodology" in chapter 6), develop a calendar of activities.
2. *Become familiar with the content you intend to teach.* Make notes as you review the material, including vocabulary you will need to preteach your pupils, discussion items (questions for study guides or in-class interactions), and learning activities you can implement.
3. *Reflect on your intentions.* To get a fix on the unit's goals, think about how you will evaluate pupils' work. What assignments will be graded? What quizzes or tests will you give? How will you grade other learning activities? Consider the level of attainment you want pupils to achieve through participation in unit activities (is simple recall your final goal, or is it the ability to transfer information to new situations?).
4. *Brainstorm activities.* By now, you probably have a general plan in mind. Meet with others in your content area (if it will help) and describe your ideas. Listen to their suggestions. Rough out an overview on a single-page calendar. Try to orchestrate the broad flow of your unit's progress and timing. Look for both continuity (a coherent progression) and variety (not the same activities day after day). Try to plan two or three related activities for each day.

5. *Plan daily lessons.* With goals, evaluation, and a general instructional framework in mind, go to work on your lessons. Each lesson should contain specific objectives, a content sequence, notes on restructuring various activities, and prompts or questions from which you will work. If the lesson opens with a lecture, be sure to outline the main points and examples in sufficient detail that you can work from them. The same goes for discussion questions. If the lesson begins with a handout to which pupils respond, include the handout. Indicate the duration for various chunks of daily lessons (which will help you become more realistic).
6. *Develop supplemental materials.* With this step, you get down to the nitty-gritty of involving pupils in thoughtful activities. Working from notes developed for step 2 above, construct handouts, vocabulary exercises, study guides, discussion questions, step-by-step instructions, and whatever materials you will need to stimulate and motivate pupils to actively engage in learning activities. Try to design your instruction so it takes you out of the role of information dispenser.
7. *Create quiz and test items.* Your daily plans, supplemental materials, and objectives should provide you with a rich resource to develop "item pools" for evaluation.
8. *Put the pieces together.* Assemble the elements of the unit into a coherent package that will make sense to colleagues in this class. The unit should contain *all* the elements discussed in this document.

Putting the TWS Together

Section 1: Initial Planning

This section includes your topic maps and your calendars. To construct your topic maps, be sure to do the following:

- Discuss the content with your cooperating teacher. Find out what the class is studying and what materials are being used. Ideally, you can use the classroom textbooks as resources for your unit.
- Based on a 7-week period of instruction, create a topic map. Remember that it is acceptable to use a traditional outline. Either will allow you to begin thinking about how your unit will break out.
- From the topic maps or outline, enter your proposed instructional chunks onto the calendar. Remember that at this stage we are dealing in very general terms with large areas of the overall topic or content. The goals, objectives, and lesson plans will be generated from this initial planning.

Section 2: Description of the Setting

This section of the work sample is designed for you to describe the community, school, and classroom where you will complete your student teaching. Completion of the setting description will also inform your planning for your instructional unit in that you may need to adjust or adapt your unit based on the characteristics of your particular setting. The description of the setting should include the following elements:

- Information regarding the general socioeconomic level of the community where the site is located.
- The prevailing cultural values reflected in the school setting. You can include information from the daily newspaper, such as types of housing available.
- A thorough description of the school site (middle/high school, number of pupils, general school procedures, how problems are dealt with, composition of the student body).
- A thorough description of the specific classroom where you teach (number of pupils, number of male and female students, cultural makeup of pupils, number of pupils with disabilities and/or children with special needs, number of pupils who speak English as a second language, pupils whose behavior makes it difficult to teach). This description also includes a section about the physical setup of the classroom, availability and use of technology, and any other information you feel is pertinent.

Section 3: Goals and Objectives

This section includes the goals and objectives you have established for your unit of study. Follow these broad guidelines:

- The unit(s) that you develop will have a variable number of goals that you anticipate your pupils will have achieved following your instruction. These goals should include those drawn from at least two of the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains and will be the basis for the specific performance objectives that you create for your unit.
- Each goal should include two or more specific performance outcomes or objectives related to the daily lessons and the unit goals. Your unit goals and objectives, in addition to being embedded in your daily lesson plans, need to be extracted and presented in the following format to meet requirements of Oregon's Teacher Standards and Practices Commission (TSPC):[1]

  1.0 List your first goal here.
    1.1 List the first performance objective that matches your unit goal.
    1.2 List the second . . . .
    1.3 And so on until all the objectives for this goal are listed.
  2.0 List your second goal here.
    2.1 List the first performance objective that matches your unit goal.
    2.2 List the second . . . .
    2.3 And so on until all the objectives for this goal are listed.
  3.0 List your third goal here.
    3.1 List the first performance objective that matches your unit goal.
    3.2 List the second . . . .
    3.3 And so on until all the objectives for this goal are listed.

Section 4: Rationale

Your rationale for the unit includes an explanation of the relationship of the unit of study to district goals, Certificate of Initial Mastery (CIM) benchmarks, Certificate of Advanced Mastery (CAM) benchmarks, Common Curriculum Goal (CCG) outcomes, and essential learning skills (when appropriate).

Display your goals as shown in the accompanying box. An additional part of the rationale will include responses to certain concerns:

- Justify the strategies you selected. In other words, defend your chosen strategy as a means of fostering pupils' learning.
- Address the issue of differentiating or adapting your instruction or assessment for pupils with disabilities or special needs. You should consider the different learning styles of your pupils.
- Explain how preassessment data influenced your instructional and/or assessment plans.

Sample Presentation of Goals

Common Curriculum Goal (from *CIM Benchmarks*): Pupils will recognize and explain relationships among events, issues, and developments in different spheres of human activity.

> *Your goal:* Pupils will examine, analyze, and identify common characteristics of various historical military leaders.
>
> *Your performance objective:* After reading and discussing several short passages dealing with three military leaders, pupils will write a paragraph in which common and differentiating characteristics of military leaders are identified.

Remember: Your performance objectives *must* include (a) conditions, (b) measurable performance, and (c) criteria by which you will determine whether the performance objective has been met.

Section 5: Lesson Plans and Supporting Materials, Pre- and Postassessments

This section includes all the lesson plans you have developed for the unit. Although many formats for lesson plans exist, we prefer that your TWS contain well-developed lesson plans along with any supporting materials, transparencies, worksheets, manipulatives, or other resources that you may use. Incorporate various instructional strategies throughout your unit. Samples of pupils' work should also be included with your final TWS report.

Your pre- and postassessments do not need to be identical, but they should be designed so that they are similar enough to reflect gains in pupils' learning. That is, the pre- and postassessments should each closely match the performance objectives you have developed. Last, be sure to vary the levels of responding and understanding that you expect from your pupils. In other words, make sure your assessments contain more than recognition or recall items and that the assessment accurately reflects the types of instruction and demonstrations of learning you stated in the objectives you selected.

Section 6: Data Display and Interpretation

In this section, display the pre- and postassessment data obtained for this TWS. You may elect to display these data in quartiles or clusters. Additionally, provide an interpretation of these results. In your view, for example, why did you obtain the results you did? What occurred, both instructionally and coincidentally, that contributed to the obtained results? Were you surprised by some pupils' performance?

Section 7: Reflection

In this section, include your reactions to the entire experience of the TWS. This reflection should go beyond the data you discussed in the previous section and provide you the opportunity to examine your own practices and beliefs about teaching, any surprises you encountered along the way, and perhaps how this experience has informed your evolving beliefs about learning, education, teaching, and yourself as a teacher. John Dewey's ideas are helpful in describing what we mean by reflection (and evidence that demonstrates reflection) in student teachers' work samples: "Reflection may be seen as an active and deliberative cognitive process, involving sequences of interconnected ideas which take account of underlying beliefs and knowledge. Reflective thinking generally addresses practical problems, allowing for doubt and perplexity before possible solutions are reached" (Hatton & Smith, 1995, p. 34).

NOTE

1. The TSPC oversees all activities related to teacher licensure, including accreditation of the state's teacher preparation programs.

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Chapter 17

Teacher Work Sample Methodology in Special Education Preparation: A Case Study

by Elizabeth A. Dohrn, Educational Consultant

This chapter focuses on teacher work sample (TWS) components and methodology in preparation programs for individuals pursuing licensure in special education, as well as for candidates who teach children with disabilities in settings with peers without disabilities. Readers will find descriptions of how teacher work sample methodology (TWSM) relates to federal legislation for education of exceptional children, how TWS components play out for special education candidates, and how TWSs are evaluated.

In Oregon, licensure in special education can be obtained in three ways. The first is to add a special education authorization to a valid general education license. Second, an individual may choose to pursue simultaneously licensure in special education and general education. A third route involves an individual with at least a bachelor's degree enrolling in a program to obtain authorization to teach exclusively children with disabilities.

The varied experiences of individuals pursuing a special education authorization and the array of programming differences for children with disabilities in school settings pose distinctive challenges for preparation provided by preservice educators and the design of TWS expectations. Many preservice teachers in special education previously completed a TWS in their general education licensure program. For other prospective special education teachers, it will be their first experience with TWSM. To address these issues, this chapter first provides a definition of special education and the legal requirements as they impact the development of TWSs. It then examines the structure and components of a TWS in a special education preparation program and provides for the required components and the different types of work samples a preservice teacher may design based on individual pupils' needs. (The mini-work sample in Appendix I portrays many of the components described below.)

SPECIAL EDUCATION REQUIREMENTS

At Western, individuals seeking to become special education teachers choose a course of study that will earn them a master's degree in education, or a 5th-year graduate program. Either program leads to authorization in one or more of the

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following preparation programs: deafness, special educator for mildly and severely disabled, and/or early childhood intervention. As part of the course of study in the three authorizations, prospective teachers are required to complete at least one practicum and one term of student teaching in their licensure area.

To successfully complete a special education program at Western, students must demonstrate mastery of specified competencies before recommendation for a license or authorization (see Appendix S). Included in those requirements is the development of a TWS. In addition to the requirements for a TWS, the preservice teacher must demonstrate other skills, such as developing a portfolio documenting many professional skills that include, for example, administering standardized achievement tests, developing an individualized education plan (IEP), and preparing of a diagnostic summary.

To better understand the requirements for prospective teachers in special education programs, especially as they differ from preservice teachers in elementary/secondary programs, a description follows of the requirements for serving children with special needs identified under federal law. The legal requirements for special education serve as the basis for all evaluation, curriculum development, instruction, and monitoring of progress for children with disabilities. The TWS expectations for Western's prospective special education teachers blend federal law with Oregon requirements for teacher preparation. Much of the remainder of this chapter explains that blending process.

DEFINITION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

The Individuals With Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997 (P.L. 105-17), referred to as IDEA 1997, defines special education as specially designed instruction, at no cost to parents, to meet the unique needs of a child with a disability, including (a) instruction conducted in the classroom, in the home, in hospitals and institutions, and in other settings, and (b) instruction in physical education (IDEA 1997, Part A, Section 602, (25), U.S. Department of Education, 1997).

A school team responsible for such a child must consider information related to enabling the pupil to be involved with and make progress in the general curriculum. The progress data on the child collected by the general educator become part of the record of the pupil's present level of performance. IEPs need to be developed that align with the general education curriculum by the use of relevant, functional, and developmental information, formal curriculum-based assessment, and systematic classroom assessment. Such assessment data lead smoothly into annual goals and short-term objectives or benchmarks. The congressional committee report on IDEA 1997 indicates that the law contains a presumption that children with disabilities are to be educated in regular classes. Therefore, if the child participates with peers in the regular class, an explanation of the extent of participation is to be indicated in the IEP. This presumption strengthens the need for collaboration between general and special education teachers in program planning. It also drives the development of curriculum for children with disabilities, focusing on the general education curriculum, standards, content, and benchmarks in the design of special education programming for those with a disability.

What the foregoing paragraph implies is that, based on the law and requirements that exceed those regulations governing general education, it is important for preservice teachers in special education to have knowledge of a significant set of skills when developing a TWS.

Goals

Therefore, for prospective special education teachers, the outcomes that relate to TWSM need to include the following:

1. Prospective teachers will go beyond knowledge, skills, and dispositions thought to be needed for general education teachers to be successful, integrating and applying those outcomes to foster the learning progress desired of children regardless of their intellectual, emotional, or physical status;
2. Prospective teachers will develop assessments of pupils' learning and integrate, interpret, report, reflect upon, and use those data in describing pupils' progress in learning;
3. Prospective teachers will acquire the conceptual and procedural foundations necessary to function effectively in standards-based schools; and
4. Prospective teachers will adhere to a philosophy and methodology by which to seek to continuously improve as professionals.

Types of Special Education Work Samples

The variety in educational settings serving special education pupils requires prospective teachers to employ different formats for their TWSs. Beverly Herzog, a professor in special education at Western, identified five types of work samples that prospective teachers can design depending on the context, teacher role, and children's needs.

Academic Work Samples

This format is used when content outcomes are sought, such as those in reading, math, writing, spelling, or other academic areas that require sequential acquisition. The academic TWS includes an overall instructional objective and a "step plan" or task analysis in which instruction is apportioned into three to five teachable parts (steps). Step 1 is taught to criterion before moving to step 2, and so on. Data are typically recorded as accuracy statements (number of words read or problems completed correctly). Graphs are provided to show performance scores or percentages as measured on a pretest, progress probes, and postassessment (see Appendix I).

Functional Work Samples

This format is used when teaching a practical or "survival" skill such as an arrival routine, dressing, feeding onself, knowledge of bus travel, or a vocational skills sequence. The functional work sample includes an overall instructional objective and a chronological list of steps in the routine. In a typical training session, all the steps in the routine are completed, with the instructor providing the level of assistance needed for each step using either a least-to-most assistance model[1] or a most-to-least assistance model. Data are typically recorded in terms of the level of assistance needed for each step learned. Graphs show the percentage of independent steps over training days.

Unit Work Samples

This TWS format is used when teaching a typical curricular unit, such as a unit on voting. The information taught may be basic to a general education skill or a routine such as completing an Oregon mail-in ballot. However, such a unit should also provide information necessary for decisions in marking the final ballot. The TWS unit includes an overall instructional goal and a list of objectives that contribute to the achievement of the overall goal. These objectives are similar to the step plan in the academic work sample but may or may not be sequential. Data are typically obtained from test scores over each of the specific objectives or from a rubric or scoring guide evaluating the quality of the children's performance or products associated with each objective. Graphs show performance scores as measured on a pretest, progress probes, and final assessment.

Social/Behavioral Work Samples

The fourth TWS format is used when teaching prosocial skills to a child who demonstrates challenging behaviors (off-task behavior, noncompliance, aggressive or destructive behavior) in a variety of social contexts. The social/behavioral work sample includes specification of the challenging behavior(s), baseline data, analysis of antecedent and consequent events, the generation of a hypothesis of the function the behavior serves for the child, behavioral objective(s) as stated by the prospective teacher, and an explanation of a treatment plan, including prevention, instruction, and reaction. Data include both baseline and "during-treatment" assessment of the challenging behavior and may also include data to demonstrate growth in use of appropriate behavior in social contexts outside the school setting.

Collaborative Work Samples

This TWS format is used when teaching in conjunction with a general education teacher in an inclusive setting. It may also be simultaneously used in conjunction with any of the preceding types of work samples. The collaborative work sample includes objectives stated by the prospective teacher to be met in the inclusive setting, a description of the environment, required inclusion support, and procedures selected to deliver the necessary support. In addition to data for the work sample, additional information is typically gathered on the prospective teacher's performance in the regular class.

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WORK SAMPLE COMPONENTS

As in Western Oregon's elementary and secondary programs, TWS components for preservice teachers in special education include

- Description of the context
- Rationale
- Instructional objectives
- Related IEP goals and objectives
- Assessment procedures and materials
- Data display and interpretation
- Instructional plans
- Self-reflection and evaluation

Each component is discussed in this section of the chapter, including insights into challenges for preservice special education teachers and strategies that may be helpful in teaching the components to prospective special education teachers.

Context Setting

This section requires preservice teachers to define the setting where they are student teaching. Students are responsible for describing the schoolwide climate as well as the setting. This section allows prospective teachers to identify the characteristics of the setting that will most likely exert a significant impact on the children and professionals.

Western's prospective special education teachers are taught to examine vision and mission statements, district policies, and procedure manuals, and to interview several constituencies in the school (such as administrators, teachers, parents, and children) to gain insights into the perspectives each brings. In their immediate setting, teacher education students are to identify procedures and strategies used to meet children's needs. Western's special education programs may take place in a variety of practicum settings. Western's students may not have a work "place" (like a classroom) but an office or cart. Given this variety, the description of the setting is important to help readers understand the nuances of the TWS.

Rationale

This section requires the prospective teacher to identify the topic of the work samples, provide the reasons for selecting the chosen topic, and discuss the connection to the child's current status. In special education, this decision is based primarily on the current regular classroom curriculum, assessment data, the child's IEP, and the prospective teacher's collaboration with others on the child's team.

In special education, unit topics are usually oriented around basic skill development and, in some cases, behavioral goals. Unlike general education TWSs, prospective special education teachers do not choose units that revolve around themes; rather, they emanate from pupils' deficits in learning. For this reason, many TWSs in special education are implemented with a small group or an individual child.

Western's teacher education students tend to explain the rationale well, because it is usually based on assessment data of individual pupils' needs. To successfully describe the rationale, prospective teachers need instruction and practice in interpreting assessment results and how those results relate to goals and objectives in an IEP and, ultimately, to the outcomes for a unit of study.

The structure of the TWS rationale for Western's special education candidates is quite similar to that used by prospective general education teachers. The singular difference is that the connection to the child's IEP must be made clear in the special educator's TWS rationale.

Objectives

Writing objectives for a TWS is particularly challenging for prospective special educators because it involves, first, analyzing data on preinstructional status and, second, translating the data into realistic objectives. Teacher education students need prior knowledge about what children should be able to do at different developmental levels and what academic skills are necessary to facilitate a child's learning the desired content. In writing appropriate objectives, teacher education students need to state the criteria necessary to attain the outcome. It is sometimes difficult because preservice teachers tend to lean toward 80 to 100% accuracy, whether such a high standard is appropriate or not. Teacher education students need instruction in analyzing sequences of functional skills and task-analyzing content skills. Teacher education faculty need to reinforce the use of preassessment data at this stage to guide students toward objectives that set high expectations yet are realistic and obtainable.

Related IEP Goals and Objectives

Western's special education programs require that IEPs constructed by preservice teachers address annual goals and short-term objectives and/or benchmarks necessary for the child to attain the general education curriculum. A team of professionals develops the annual goals and short-term objectives. For the TWS, preservice teachers are to develop goals and objectives based on the IEP, assessment data, and team input. These guides are expected to help build on the child's current IEP. Goals selected can be cognitive, behavioral, and/or functional (life skills, work related) in nature. The outcomes should reflect the child's current performance level, be specific and measurable, and clearly indicate what the preservice teacher is expected to accomplish in the amount of time called for in the TWS. Western's preservice teachers practice writing goals and objectives in every course throughout their special education program. Many courses begin with preservice teachers' setting goals for themselves, developing goals and objectives for a child, and planning goals and objectives with others in a group. Preservice teachers are to identify the selected goals and objectives that

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address the weaknesses in a child's performance as indicated in each assessment they administer throughout the program.

Assessment Procedures

This component demonstrates the preservice teachers' skills in developing assessment strategies and materials, and collecting, analyzing, and displaying data. In Western's special education program, preservice teachers are required to participate, during their practicum, in an initial evaluation for determining eligibility for special education services or a 3-year reevaluation of a child who is already eligible for services. Both these evaluations require extensive use of assessments and team input. The assessment devices may include standardized achievement tests, IQ tests, behavioral rating scales, classroom observations, curriculum-based assessments, interviews, functional assessments, informal assessments, and samples of current classroom work. Once the assessment is completed, the preservice teacher summarizes the results and includes them in the rationale, instructional plan, and evaluation of data.

The main focus of assessment during the TWS developmental phase is the construction of appropriate plans. First, the preservice teacher must relate the IEP's annual goals and short-term objectives to an instructional plan. Second, after determining the outcome to be taught, the preservice teacher must also identify the criteria for mastery and the postinstructional data to be collected, and develop a system to display his/her performance before and after instruction.

Data Display and Interpretation

Evident throughout the entire planning process for the TWS in special education is the interpretation of achievement data for pupils. Without meaningful data, the TWS would not be a valid assessment of the prospective teacher's ability to influence pupils' learning. TWS expectations in special education require that performance data be displayed on a chart or graph accompanied by an interpretation of learning gains. The preservice teacher identifies the results of the instruction and the instructional decisions made for the next lesson based on the data (seeTable 9.18). Many preservice educators struggle with deciding how to meaningfully measure and display pupils' performance. Continually providing lessons in aligning objectives with assessment is a helpful tool in equipping preservice teachers with a variety of techniques to measure and display performance. In some Western classes, special education instructors demonstrate rubrics and self-monitoring tools. Providing preservice students with meaningful examples of assessment of pupils assists them in developing their own assessments.

In special education at Western, prospective teachers are involved in assessment at a global level (establishing eligibility and determining present levels of pupils' performance overall) and at the instructional level (developing pupil performance procedures and materials). Preservice teachers are prepared for this intensive assessment phase throughout their program. Preservice teachers often are instructed to practice their assessment skills on each other, friends, relatives, and, finally, children with special needs. In the latter activity, the preservice teachers are required to videotape administration of the assessment activity and then complete a full analysis of data they collected.

Instructional Plans

The instructional plans for the TWS are designed to focus on the annual goals and short-term objectives for a child in a particular content and/or skill area. Each instructional plan is to identify the related annual goals and short-term objectives on which the TWS is based, a rationale for the instructional approach chosen, the specific goals and outcomes for the lessons in the TWS, a sequence of steps necessary to teach the skill, and a miniplan for teaching each step. The TWS instructional plan includes, at a minimum, the following segments:

- Review (with the child) of previous instruction
- Prompts to focus the child on new learning
- Sequence of instruction for the new skill
- Guided practice of the new skill
- Independent practice
- Evaluation and
- Inclusion of the materials developed or selected for the TWS lessons

The plan for each step is directly related to a task analysis of the specific content to be taught. Each objective is translated into steps to learn a new skill and provide practice and assessment of the skill. The steps are then taught as a single objective per lesson. Some steps may take days and weeks for children to learn (e.g., decoding of a set of words), while others may be accomplished in a single lesson (e.g., writing the number 1). The amount of time spent on each objective, the number of times the skill must be taught, and the particular instructional methods to teach the skill are all based on individual pupils' needs.

Students need to learn as well to specify adaptations for the child when involved in the general education classroom. For instance, an adaptation might supply the child with more time to master a task than that provided to others. Another adaptive modification might provide preteaching a skill in a small group or individually. That step could be followed by reteaching the skill at the end of the unit. Delivery can also be adapted by providing a variety of instructional formats, such as written, oral, or cooperative learning activities. (Chapter 7 provides many suggestions for possible instructional and assessment adaptations.)

Preservice teachers at Western are taught about plans in a variety of formats. Preservice teachers with prior knowledge in lesson planning are instructed to fit a lesson they currently teach into a step sequence. For preservice teachers unfamiliar with development of lesson plans, each step is demonstrated through the instructor's own instructional plan. Preservice teachers are provided with mul-

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tiple opportunities to develop step plans and to practice teaching the plans to peers and children in their practicum setting.

Because so many pupils served by special education teachers need clear instructions to allow them to learn as much as they can, it is necessary to teach candidates to develop TWS plans that reduce ambiguity and focus on specificity. Candidates need to learn to be careful in their TWS plans to ensure that pupils receive an articulated instructional experience.

Reflection and Evaluation

This component consists of the preservice teacher's analysis, from several perspectives, of the success of the TWS unit. The reflection focuses on the prospective teacher's performance as well as on the child's or children's observed learning. Responses to the following questions are to be incorporated into the self-evaluation for each lesson taught:

1. What was your objective?
2. Did the children meet the objective?
3. As the teacher, were you prepared?
4. Were you enthusiastic?
5. During the lesson, were the children on task?
6. Were they able to complete the task?
7. What would you consider to be two strengths of the TWS lesson?

Western's special education preservice teachers are required to keep a self-reflection log describing their professional readings and to record perceptions of their practice teaching sessions drawn from their and their supervisor's thoughts. Before student teaching, Western's preservice teachers have had one or two practica. During their practica, preservice teachers write self-reflections and share them with colleagues in weekly seminars. To provide concrete examples, many instructors share reflections preservice teachers in past years have provided. The reflective statements are assessed in terms of whether the self-evaluation questions from Table 17.1 have been incorporated.

Scoring TWS Components

Specific components of the five types of TWSs vary somewhat in special education. Although the components required are the same, individual preservice teachers' needs determine the specific composition of a TWS. The following discussion describes examples of a few selected components taken from students' work for four of the eight TWS components listed previously.

Assessment and Data Analysis

Preservice teachers use a variety of assessment and data analysis procedures in their TWSs. An assessment of written expression for one preservice teacher was based on Oregon's spontaneous writing task and supplemented with capitalization and punctuation assessment based on a unit taught previously. Based on the results, the preservice teacher designed goals and objectives to increase the

Table 17.1. Teacher Self-Evaluation for a Lesson

Name: Lesson date:

Instructional objective:

What was your instructional arrangement?

Identify two or three strengths of the lesson:

	Yes	No	Some	Comments
As the teacher, I:				
Had materials ready and accessible				
Explained the goal				
Was enthusiastic				
Gave clear cues and directions				
Elicited frequent response from pupils				
Used an effective correction procedure				
Managed pupils' behavior				
Charted pupils' performance				
Was able to foster pupils' learning				
During the lesson, pupils:				
Paid attention				
Completed the task				
Gave mostly correct responses				
Met the criterion				

children's skills in capitalization and punctuation. Data were analyzed by overall percentage correct and displayed on graphs comparing pre- and posttest scores (Appendix I).

Related IEP Goals and Objectives

In the assessment of written expression described above, the preservice teacher identified a short-term objective as

> The child will be able to edit written exercises using correct capitalization and punctuation with at least 85% accuracy.

The related IEP goal and short-term objectives[2] for the same unit were

> Goal: Write a paragraph with correct punctuation, capitalization, and structure with spelling assistance.

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> Objective: Write a complete paragraph with correct structure, punctuation, and capitalization without error, by April 1996.

Instructional Plans

In the TWS unit to develop written expression described above, the preservice teacher used the following "steps" in her plan.

- Step 1 focused on an outcome in which the children were to learn basic capitalization (proper noun, first word in sentence) and selected punctuation rules.
- Step 2 continued the rules and focused on proper nouns and end punctuation.
- Step 3 focused on capitalization of proper adjectives and punctuation rules for commas.
- Step 4 addressed capitalization of book titles and continuation of punctuation rules for commas. These steps indicated the scope of skills to be taught to the children over 3 to 4 weeks.

The daily instructional plans stated the actual activities and adjustments to the instruction based on the children's preinstructional and instructional performance.

Reflection and Evaluation

One form of teacher evaluation during a TWS is found in Weekly Interpretation of Gains in Learning (WIGL) (Table 9.18). In the WIGL, preservice teachers identify decision rules for advancement and alteration to the instructional plan. Room exists in the WIGL, for interpretation of the data collected, which are used to develop a plan for the next instructional step.

Another source of teacher self-evaluation is found in the daily instructional plans. Upon completion of each lesson, preservice teachers describe their perceptions of their instructional effectiveness. An example of a preservice teacher's self-evaluation at the end of a lesson is illustrated here.

> Group worked well together. X works well in one-on-one situations and in this group. He was first to finish all assignments. All students had a chance to work at the overhead, which they enjoyed. Found that for J and M doing the written portion of the test was the difficult part, and it caused J to have a bad attitude. After talking with her, I accepted changes on the paper and two sentences written. M did the best she could do, but it is slow going for her. I gave them lots of visual reinforcement of lesson. Have to be clearer in my instructions and give examples of everything. Lesson will need to be finished tomorrow.

In this example, the analysis addresses many of the questions identified earlier. It indicates that the preservice teacher intends some change in instruction to meet the children's needs in the following lesson.

SUMMARY

TWSM is a powerful tool in the development of necessary skills for preservice teachers in special education programs. The components of the TWS as described in this chapter include the federal requirements as mandated by IDEA 1997. The TWS provides a meaningful avenue for preservice teachers to examine each component of the teaching process from assessment to curriculum development to monitoring progress of pupils and of their own work. The degree of organization and paperwork required in the TWS is not unlike the demands special educators will face when they serve as practicing professionals in the schools. The process of teaching preservice teachers how to complete a TWS should be an integral component throughout their program, pointing out the relationship between coursework, application to actual practice, and pupils' learning.

NOTES

1. This model refers to the assistance level that goes from *least intrusive* in the general education curriculum to the *most intrusive*. If a child in a math class is expected to complete only every other problem, it is usually considered limited intrusion on the general education curriculum. If, however, the child requires preteaching and postteaching of math concepts, that strategy is usually categorized as intrusive because of its impact on the general education teacher's work requirements and its likelihood of calling attention to the child.
2. The preservice teachers were *not* responsible for the content and measurability of the IEP goals and objectives. They were written by the mentor teacher or other school personnel.

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Appendix A

The Evolution and Conceptual Underpinnings of Teacher Work Sample Methodology

by H. Del Schalock, Western Oregon University

As both a concept and a methodology, teacher work sampling has many roots. The genesis and first application of the methodology, was an early program of research at Western Oregon University (then Oregon College of Education) on teacher effectiveness (H. D. Schalock et al., 1973; Schalock & Girod, 1975; H. D. Schalock, 1979a, 1979b; H. D. Schalock, 1983). Like most other research on teaching during the 1960s and 1970s, this research focused initially on teacher characteristics and behaviors but soon shifted in pursuit of a more defensible measure of teacher effectiveness. During this time, we began to search for ways to connect teaching and learning as the central feature of a measurement methodology to study teacher effects on learning. In addition to meeting the regular canons of measurement, we wanted to have a measure of teacher effectiveness that would be viewed by teachers as meaningful, be relatively nonobtrusive to their work, be relatively low in cost, and be relatively low in technological demands to manage.

This search led to the emergence of teacher work sampling as the measure of choice. Initial versions of the methodology were in use at Western by the early 1980s, approximately the same time that the process-product paradigm for teacher effectiveness research emerged at other research sites.

Since our research at Western was nested from the outset within the context of teacher education, the preparation and licensing of teachers has also influenced the shape of the methodology. This is reflected in its description in chapter 1. Other formative sources of influence included exploratory research on the effectiveness of experienced elementary teachers (M. Schalock, 1987) and the implications of the standards movement in education for teacher and school accountability for pupils' progress in learning (H. D. Schalock & Smith, 1997; H. D. Schalock & Reinke, 1998; H. D. Schalock, 1998a, 1998b; M. Schalock, 1998).

For the past 6 years at Western, we have been engaged in the formal and public review of the trustworthiness (reliability and validity) of information coming from the methodology when used for purposes of teacher preparation and licensing (McConney et al., 1997; H. D. Schalock et al., 1997; Western Oregon University, 1995, 1996). An overview of this evidence, and our national advisory panel's response to it, is provided in chapter 3. An articulation of the conditions that need to be met when teacher work samples are used for one purpose versus another is a major outgrowth of these validation studies and is a central focus of chapter 2.

A conceptual web has emerged from these various lines of work that undergirds and informs the methodology. At the philosophy level, the view has grown stronger with each passing year that the professional touchstone for teachers and teacher educators is pupils' learning. The professional status of either will advance only when teachers are demonstrably able to nurture the kind and level of learning in their pupils that is deemed essential at a particular point in time. It is this fundamental orientation to the purpose of teaching and teacher education that has led a colleague, Bill Cowart, to describe the orientation as "a profession in focus."

At the theory level, an *outcome-based and context-dependent theory of teacher effectiveness* has evolved as an overarching guide to our work (M. Schalock et al., 1993; H. D. Schalock et al., 1996). This theoretical work is still viewed largely as emerging, but it has provided a frame of reference that has informed both the development of the methodology per se and research pursued through its use (McConney & Schalock, 1996; H. D. Schalock et al., 1997).

The interface of these philosophical and theoretical views with the demands of teacher preparation and licensure have led to clarity with respect to the core elements comprising the methodology and two other features of its use when applied in the context of the initial preparation and licensing of teachers. The first feature is the *principles of design* that need to be followed when developing teacher preparation programs that systematically link teaching and learning. Second is the *conditions of use* that need to be in place when attempting to implement such programs. Both need to be attended to with great care for TWSM to be implemented with integrity and for the methodology as a whole to be used defensibly (see Note 7 in chapter 1).

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Appendix B

An Overview of the Legacies From Norm-Referenced Schooling That Run Counter to a Standards-Based Design for Schools

by H. Del Schalock, Western Oregon University

LEGACY 1: LOW EXPECTATIONS FOR LEARNING

Resnick & Resnick (1985) describe our 20th-century school heritage as deriving from both a "high literacy" (education for the elite) and "low literacy" (education for the masses) tradition. They point out that the high literacy tradition, with an emphasis on reasoning, rhetoric, and mathematical and scientific thought, was an established feature of both public and private academies in colonial times and was carried forward in a variety of institutions through the 19th and early 20th centuries. These institutions provided a classical education for children of the elite or the educational underpinnings needed by those preparing to be scientists, engineers, lawyers, physicians, or clergy. Schools of this kind have served only a small portion of the young in our nation at any point in time.

Schools for the masses arose to meet a different set of needs in our society and had different historical roots. By the time of the Revolutionary War, Benjamin Franklin had established in Philadelphia an "academy" that had as its primary focus practical rather than classical studies. The academy represented the first major break in American education from its European heritage and signaled the beginning of a divisive, rancorous debate that has continued in America for 250 years about the purposes of education. This debate evolved through and was influenced by the many events and forces shaping the nation as a whole. Particularly notable in this regard was the western expansion following the Revolutionary War; the emergence of the "common school" as a unique American invention as a consequence of this expansion, and with it the passage of laws making education compulsory; the Civil War and all that followed from it; the arrival of massive numbers of emigrants in the last half of the 19th century; the industrialization of the nation, with its attending shifts in population from farms to the city and the attending need for literacy on the part of workers; and finally, the emergence of the "high school" near the turn of the last century.

The mass education system that evolved under these circumstances before World War I focused largely on elementary schooling, with sharp distinctions between elementary and secondary education. In her seminal monograph *Education and Learning to Think,* Lauren Resnick describes this system and its consequences as follows:

> Almost everyone went to elementary school, although a limited number finished the entire eight-year course. Only a few went to high school or its equivalent. The elementary schools served the masses and concerned themselves with basic skills of reading and computation, with health and citizenship training, and the like. Routinized performance rather than creative and independent thought was stressed. Mass education was, from its inception, concerned with inculcating routine abilities: simple computation, reading predictable texts, reciting religious or civic codes. It did not take as goals for its students the ability to interpret unfamiliar texts, create material others would want and need to read, construct convincing arguments, develop original solutions to technical or social problems. The political conditions under which mass education developed encouraged instead the routinization of basic skills as well as the standardization of teaching and education institutions. Standardization was a means of ensuring that at least minimal curriculum standards would be met, that teachers would be hired on the basis of competency for the job rather than political or familial affiliation, and that those responsible for the expenditure of public finds could exercise orderly oversight over the educational process. (1987, p. 5)

Following World War I, the vast social and economic changes in the nation changed the purpose of education to provide more than just the most basic of what are now thought to be "basic skills." These changes also outmoded the apprenticeship system that had formerly existed in the workplace, leaving to schools much of the responsibility for helping youth make the transition from family to work. As an accompaniment to these changes, compulsory attendance laws were changed to require all children to be in school until they reached the age of 16. High schools had become "tracked" much as we know them today: an academic curriculum for students preparing to enter college, a vocational curriculum for students clearly not intending to go to college, and a "general" curriculum for everyone else. Even with this kind of curriculum differentiation, however, fewer than 25% of students entering high school in 1920 completed 4 years of study, and only 40% did so in 1940.

While this description provides more on the history of American education than most readers of this handbook want or need, it is a history that seems essential to understand as we ask schools to set high standards for learning and then insist that pupils meet them in order to progress through school. There is little in our educational history and little in current theory or practice to help us support and implement such a view, even if the political, cultural, and social desires exist to do so. The legacy of the "low literacy" tradition in our schools is many sided and has deep cultural roots. It will not be cast aside nor overcome with ease.

LEGACY 2. BUILDING ON APTITUDE RATHER THAN EFFORT

As the late 19th- and early 20th-century design for public schools was taking shape, a theory and related technology appeared on the scene that also served to reinforce low expectations for academic achievement: the conception of intelligence and its measurement by Alfred Binet.

Known as the "father of intelligence testing," Binet began his work in the context of education. He and a colleague published their first tests in 1905 as a means of identifying the "feebleminded group" who could benefit from additional education help. This early effort to predict who could or could not benefit from schooling led to a narrowing of the concept of intelligence to higher level reasoning abilities while ignoring "the manifestations of intelligent behavior in social roles or in coping with everyday problems" (Shepard, 1989, p. 4).

The work of Binet first received widespread attention in America through its adoption by the American military in selecting recruits for World War I. This application of Binet's thinking and methods led to further use of intelligence testing after the war and to the conclusion that a large segment of the American population had a mental age not exceeding 14 (Marshall & Tucker, 1992). The consequences of this view of ability for schooling was far reaching:

> A few used this "information" to argue for an elitist approach to schooling. But most did the opposite, arguing that in a democratic country, the only fair response to this information was to construct an intellectually undemanding curriculum for everyone. . . . In 1940, Lewis Terman, a respected psychologist, opined that an IQ of 110 was required for serious academic study. He estimated that less than 40 percent of American youth had an IQ of 110 or above, showing, he said, that 60 percent were not fit for intellectual activity. (Marshall & Tucker, 1992, p. 21)

While educators and psychologists in other countries did not make similar connections between intelligence and schooling and continued to insist that all children could learn demanding material, educators in America—and ultimately most citizens—adopted the view that success in school-based learning was largely a matter of inherited ability (as measured by "intelligence" tests) and that not too much should be expected of pupils with low measured ability.

This relatively narrow and constraining view of the role of intelligence in schooling dominated thinking in American education for the first two thirds of the 20th century and continues to influence it today. Its cumulative effects have led to what Resnick has called an effort-dependent view of schooling. Her argument for this view runs as follows:

> Early in this century, we built an education system around the assumption that aptitude is paramount in learning and that it is largely hereditary. The system was oriented toward selection, distinguishing the naturally able from the less able and providing students with programs thought suitable to their talents. In other periods, most notably during the Great Society reforms, we worked on a compensatory principle, arguing that special effort, by an individual or an institution, could make up for low aptitude. The third possibility—that effort actually *creates* ability, that people can *become smart* by working hard at the right kinds of learning tasks—has never been taken seriously in America or indeed in any European society, although it is the guiding assumption of education institutions in societies with a Confucian tradition. . . . It is not necessary to continue this way. Aptitude is not the only possible basis for organizing schools. Educational institutions could be built around the alternative assumption that effort actually *creates* ability, that patterns of who tries hard can directly influence ultimate patterns of competence in society. If we worked from an effort, rather than an aptitude assumption, our education system would be designed primarily to foster effort, even if occasionally some opportunities for recognizing and promoting extraordinary native talent were foregone. (1995, p. 3)

LEGACY 3. USING ACHIEVEMENT TESTS TO SORT RATHER THAN EDUCATE

A legacy that has had effects on educational practice much like those that have followed from our conception of intellectual ability comes from the way in which we have designed and used educational achievement tests. Part of this legacy stems from the fact that achievement tests in the United States have been patterned on our approach to intelligence testing, both in form and use. Historically they have focused on isolated bits of information or quickly solved performance tasks that require only the marking of short answers (most often multiple choice or true-false) rather than the creation of answers. Also, like intelligence tests, achievement tests have been used almost exclusively to compare students with one another rather than with publicly established standards of accomplishment.

Another part of our achievement test legacy stems from how such tests are constructed and, as a consequence, what a score on an achievement test means. Each item included in a test is selected based on the response of a sample of examinees to whom an item is targeted. In traditional approaches to item analysis, this selection involves computing an index of item difficulty (the proportion of examinees in the sample answering an item correctly) and an index of item discrimination (the extent to which an item differentiates among examinees). Only those items that discriminate well among the sample of students taking part in the item analysis studies and that have been answered correctly by approximately 50% of the sample are included in the final form of the test. While a great deal more goes into item preparation and selection than outlined here (see Millman & Green, 1989; Hambleton, 1996), the point is that items are selected for inclusion in an achievement test on the basis of their ability to discriminate among examinees rather than assess a level of accomplishment. In developing achievement tests for use in America's schools, this process is repeated grade level by grade level for each subject assessed.

Consequently, American achievement tests are focused on whether pupils are performing "at grade level" in a particular subject area, with grade-level performance being defined by the response patterns of one or more samples of examinees to the various items included in the test.

Due at least in part to this strange and wondrous meaning of "standardized" achievement test results, schools and teachers and pupils (and parents) have grown accustomed to living with consequences such as the following:

- Measures most widely relied on in judging the effectiveness of our schools are not aligned well with what state or local curriculum guides indicate should be taught in schools; item analyses of widely used standardized achievement tests in relation to the content of curriculum guides rarely show more than 40% agreement and usually range from 15 to 30%.
- Achievement tests tend to be administered at a time in the school year (usually spring) and results returned at a time (usually late summer or fall) when whatever benefit test scores might have for a teacher can rarely be used; the pupils teachers have at the start of a school year are usually not those they had in the spring, and instructional planning for the fall has usually been completed by the time school opens.
- In many schools, teachers never see achievement test results and rarely see evidence that their school or district ever uses achievement test information—other than for a somewhat ritualistic reporting of test scores in a local newspaper or as a reason to adopt a new textbook series or implement a new instructional program.
- Even in schools or districts where good-faith efforts have been made to attend systematically to achievement test information, it has been only within the past decade or two that test reports have included analyses of the performance of individual students taught by a particular teacher.

If the conditions of standards-based teaching and learning are to be implemented, the legacy of achievement testing in the United States is not only a history to be overcome but a technology to be changed, federal and state laws to be reversed, parent and community expectations to be modified, college admission requirements to be redesigned, and a willingness on the part of the massive industry supporting it all to see a highly profitable and continuously expanding market decline. Such is the scope of this legacy and the magnitude of what needs to happen if we are to redesign teaching and learning as envisioned in a standards orientation to schooling.

LEGACY 4. NORMATIVE STANDARDS AND UNCLAIMED RESPONSIBILITIES

A fourth legacy of the 20th-century design for education in America that is consistent with, and to a large extent has evolved from, the interlocking legacies described previously involves judging the quality of work pupils accomplish in school and determining who assumes responsibility for its quality. The consequences of this legacy may be the most difficult of all to overcome in attempting to implement a standards orientation to teaching and learning, because our current standards for quality tend to be relative rather than fixed, and responsibility for quality diffuse rather than clear.

Current standards for judging the quality of pupils' work are relative in that a child's performance is compared with the performance of classmates, not with an explicit standard that is to be accomplished, and grades of A through F are assigned to convey this relative standing. While a teacher may convey to pupils what it takes to get an A or B or C and may have his or her own internal standards for judging quality, these expectations rarely are conveyed clearly. Also, grades assigned almost always take into account the work of others, grade point distributions within a class as a whole, and such other intangibles as "grading policy" within a school, a pupil's history of performance, complications posed by cooperative learning, and a pupil's effort—in either individual or group projects (Guskey, 1996; Natriello et al., 1994; Stiggins, 1994). With such uncertain and sliding targets for learning, it should come as no surprise to have pupils spend as much time as they do in clarifying what a teacher expects, what will be covered in examinations, and what grading criteria are to be used.

A particularly troublesome aspect of the use of relative rather than fixed standards in judging the quality of pupils' work is the resultant failure to hold anyone responsible for children's meeting a particular standard of performance. Pupils can work as hard or as long or as smart as they choose, depending on the grade they wish to receive and the level of competition they face from their classmates. If a C is good enough, regardless of reason, effort will be expended accordingly and learning will reflect whatever has been negotiated. Responsibility from a pupil's perspective is to show up on time, not miss too many classes, and do what needs to be done to receive the acceptable grade—not achieve a particular level of accomplishment with respect to a particular learning goal or task.

From the perspective of standards-based schooling, teachers also are handicapped by this heritage because they have no formal obligation to help children reach a particular standard of accomplishment. Level of accomplishment in a particular class, or in school generally, is a matter for each pupil to determine and pursue to the extent to which interest or ability dictate. Furthermore, teachers must evaluate work a child does to see whether it is worthy of an A or B or C, in the eyes of the teacher, and duly register that evaluation in the form of a unit or class grade. These two functions—helping a pupil accomplish the level of learning he or she wishes to pursue, and then evaluating the level of learning accomplished in terms of either explicit or implicit criteria of quality held by the teacher—constitute the central responsibility that a teacher has for learning in a norm-referenced school.

These conceptions of the nature of pupils' and teachers' work in school and perceptions of who is responsible to whom for what do not bode well for implementing standards-based teaching and learning. In a standards orientation to schooling, performance expectations for learners are no longer normative, pupils can no longer opt to work for Cs or Ds with impunity, and a teacher's work is no longer over when grades are calculated, assigned, and reported. In a standards-driven system, a pupil's work is not done until performance standards have been reached, and a teacher's work is not done until each child has reached them!

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Appendix C

Mini-Work Sample–Middle School (Language Arts)

SITE DESCRIPTION

This work sample was constructed for the eighth-grade language arts class at a middle school in a small city in the Pacific Northwest. There are 28 students in the class—16 boys and 12 girls. Three of the pupils are mainstreamed, and five others are in the Chapter One program. Three others are designated as "gifted and talented." There is one Hispanic girl who has been designated as an English as a Second Language student, though she has been in American public school for 3 years and is doing quite well. The class meets five times a week for 50 minutes, and this unit should take 1½ to 2 weeks to cover.

RATIONALE

This unit, which immediately follows another one on "point of view," will cover characterization in short stories and various other literary forms. Since this is a language arts class, the students will not only discuss characterization in works of literature but will also put their understanding of characterization into practice in their own writing. The students' learning will be fostered through a variety of learning strategies, including journaling, small group discussion, lecture, writing, and peer evaluation.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

The following goals and objectives form the foundation for the unit.

1. To enable students to identify and evaluate methods of characterization employed by writers in different forms of literature. (Oregon Common Curriculum Goal 1.2.2)
    a. After an in-class discussion and description of various methods of characterization, students will work in small groups to identify a minimum of two methods of characterization employed by the author of one of four versions of "Little Red Riding Hood." (Cognitive level: knowledge and comprehension)
    b. Each group, given in-class time to practice, will present a 3- to 5-minute dramatic version of its "Little Red Riding Hood" and will explain the methods of characterization it employed. The skits need not be memorized nor presented with dramatic costumes or props. (Cognitive level: application)
    c. At the end of the small group presentations, each student will write a two-paragraph entry in his or her journal identifying which character found most interesting and which character they thought was most clearly charac-

terized, and explaining his or her choices. (Cognitive: comprehension, analysis; Affective)

2. To help students translate their understanding of characterization into their own writing. (Oregon Common Curriculum Goals 2.1.8 and 4.3.3) Following the class discussion and small group presentations, students will write a 2- or 3-page story from one of the following two options:
   - Rewrite another fairy tale from the perspective of a different character. *or*
   - Create your own story. Be sure to use at least one or two methods of characterization and create at least one or two "well-rounded" characters. (Cognitive level: comprehension, application, synthesis)

PRETEST

The pretest is to be administered on the first day of this unit and should take only half of the class period. The questions have purposefully been left somewhat open-ended in order to give the students an opportunity to show what they do know and understand about characterization.

POSTTEST

The posttest is an evaluation the students will complete near the end of the unit on characterization. Each student will evaluate his or her own story as well as one other student's story. Each student, at the end of the unit, will staple together and turn in to the teacher his or her story, personal evaluation, and peer evaluation.

Rubric for Mini-Work Samples

Name ____________________

Description of Setting

4 You included information about the school, community, and its socioeconomic level, values, and additional information with a high degree of specificity. You supported your perceptions with factual or numerical data.

3 You included the important topics but did not extend beyond the suggested list nor support your perceptions with factual data.

2 You did not address the topics on the suggested list.

1 You forgot to include this section.

Rationale or Relationship to the Standards

4 You provided a rationale for the teaching of the unit and related your rationale to district, state, and local goals (Oregon's CIM or CAM or CCG or Essential Learning Skills or benchmarks). Your rationale included a sound philosophical and curricular base as well as a statement indicating how the unit will fit the needs of the students.

3 You provided a rationale that was sound and was related to a few Oregon goals as well as student needs.

2 Your rationale could have included a clearer relationship of Oregon's goals to the students' needs.

1 You forgot to include this section.

Outcomes

4 You included long-range goals as well as corresponding objectives. Each objective was measurable. Your goals addressed the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains of learning.

3 You included measurable objectives that corresponded to your goals. Some of the objectives were not closely aligned with your goals. You addressed two of the domains of learning.

2 You included goals and objectives that were not clearly written–the objectives were often not measurable and they did not align to the goals. Only one domain of learning was included.

1 You forgot to include goals and outcomes or the ones provided were misaligned and could not be measured. Only one domain of learning was included.

Teaching Plans and Materials

4 You included a variety of teaching approaches (at least four), considered adaptations for exceptional students and described your lessons so any teacher could teach them. Your lessons followed a logical sequence, with each lesson building upon its predecessors.

3 Your lessons were creative but lacked a clear sense of continuity from one to another. Sometimes you forgot to address the needs of the exceptional children. Generally, your lessons were well thought out and would likely succeed.

2 You forgot to include adaptations for exceptional children and your lessons lacked a clear sequence. You used too few teaching approaches.

1 You included only one teaching approach. Adaptations for exceptional students were omitted. Your lessons lacked a clear sequence.

Assessment

4 Each test item or criterion was related to an objective. Your test assessed the full range of abilities implied by your unit. You provided a variety of assessment strategies. Your assessment strategy could be followed easily by a substitute teacher.

3 Your test items or criteria were well constructed but they did not assess each objective within your unit. Your assessment seems to focus on a narrow range of measurement strategies. You assessed nearly all abilities implied by your unit. Your assessment strategy was fairly easy to understand.

2 Your assessment covered only a part of your objectives. Your assessment was limited in variety. Parts of your assessment strategy were difficult to understand.

1 Your assessment demonstrated a limited relationship to your objectives. It was difficult to understand your assessment strategy.

Appendix D

Teaching Context Description: Elementary Education

____	____	____	____
Student Teacher	School	District	Term and Year

____	____	____
College Supervisor	Cooperating Teacher	School Principal

Descriptive Information

Grade level(s) ____

Ages ____

No. of students enrolled ____

No. of ESL students receiving services ____

No. of ESL students not receiving services ____

No. of students on IEPs ____

No. of students in pull-out or supplementary programs
- Title I ____
- TAG ____
- Other ____

No. of students who are unusually demanding of time or energy and not identified in other categories (e.g., disruptive, withdrawn, dependent, etc.) ____

No. of students typically present ____

Level of diversity by category (low, medium, high)
- Age ____
- Language ____
- Developmental level ____
- Culture ____

Time available each day to teach *all* students ____

Room organization, equipment, and supplies
- Well-organized, -equipped, and -supplied ____
- Adequately organized, equipped, and supplied ____
- Poorly organized, equipped, and supplied ____

Teaching interruptions

Few ____

Some ____

Many ____

Availability of Specialists

Title I	ESL	Art	Disabled learner	Counselors/CD specialists	PE	Music
Yes __	Yes __	Yes __	Yes __	Yes __	Yes __	Yes __
No __	No __	No __	No __	No __	No __	No __

Availability of Other Forms of Help

Instructional assistants	Parent helpers/other paraprofessionals	Older student helpers	Others (please describe)
Yes __	Yes __	Yes __	____
No __	No __	No __	____

Comments:

Classroom Context Demand Rating

Provide a rating on the 6-point scale below that you believe accurately reflects the LEVEL OF DEMAND placed on the student teacher by the classroom in which student teaching occurred.

1 Low demand	2 3 4 5	6 High demand
Small class size; homogeneous student population in terms of ages, languages, developmental levels, cultures; few teaching interruptions; adequate physical environment, equipment, and supplies; sufficient time available to teach all students.	<--------------------->	Large class size; diverse student population in terms of ages, languages, developmental levels, cultures; many teaching interruptions; inadequate physical environment, equipment, and supplies; insufficient time available to teach all students.

Please comment on special factors influencing your rating of level of demand. Use the back of this page for additional space if needed.

Classroom Support and Assistance Rating

Provide a rating on the 6-point scale below that you believe accurately reflects the LEVEL OF SUPPORT AND ASSISTANCE received by the student teacher in his or her classroom.

1 Low support/assistance	2 3 4 5	6 High support/assistance
Little if any help available through specialists, instructional assistants, parent volunteers, or older students; also less supervisory support and assistance than expected, desired, or needed.	<---------------->	Considerable help available through specialists and either other adults or older students (or both); also excellent to good supervisory support and assistance.

Please comment on special factors influencing your rating of level of support and assistance. Use the back of this page for additional space if needed.

Appendix E

Teaching Context Description: Secondary Education

____________	____________	____________	____________
Student Teacher	School	District	Term and Year

____________	____________	____________
College Supervisor	Cooperating Teacher	School Principal

Descriptive Information

Grade level(s) _____

Ages _____

No. of students enrolled _____

No. of ESL students receiving services _____

No. of ESL students not receiving services _____

No. of students on IEPs _____

No. of students in pull-out or supplementary programs
- Title I _____
- TAG _____
- Other _____

No. of students who are unusually demanding of time or energy and not identified in other categories (e.g., disruptive, withdrawn, dependent, etc.) _____

No. of students typically present _____

Level of diversity by category (low, medium, high)
- Age _________
- Language _________
- Developmental level _________
- Culture _________

Time available each day to teach *all* students ____________

Room organization, equipment, and supplies
- Well-organized, -equipped, and -supplied _____
- Adequately organized, equipped, and supplied _____
- Poorly organized, equipped, and supplied _____

Teaching interruptions

Few _____

Some _____

Many _____

Availability of Specialists

ESL	Mildly disabled	Severely disabled	Emotionally disturbed	Other students
Yes __	Yes __	Yes __	Yes __	Yes __
No __	No __	No __	No __	No __

Availability of Other Forms of Help

Instructional assistants	Parent helpers/other paraprofessionals	Older student helpers	Others (please describe)
Yes __	Yes __	Yes __	____________
No __	No __	No __	____________

Comments:

Classroom Context Demand Rating

Provide a rating on the 6-point scale below that you believe accurately reflects the LEVEL OF DEMAND placed on the student teacher by the classroom in which student teaching occurred.

1 Low demand	2 3 4 5	6 High demand
Fewer than 20 students; no ESL or IEP students or students who are particularly demanding of time and energy in other ways; few students in pull-out or supplementary programs; room size, lighting, organization, furnishings, etc., adequate for the number and kind of students in the classroom.	<-------------------->	More than 30 students; several ESL and/or IEP students or students who are particularly demanding of time and energy in other ways; many students in pull-out and/or supplementary programs; two or more of the physical features of one's classroom that make effective teaching and learning difficult.

Basis for Decision

Select the two to three items below that *most* influenced the judgment you provided above.

___ a. Number of students
___ b. Number of ESL students
___ c. Number of IEP students
___ d. Other demanding students
___ e. Gender of students
___ f. Room organization, equipment, and supplies
___ g. Room noise and traffic due to location
___ h. Other (please explain)

Classroom Support and Assistance Rating

Provide a rating on the 6-point scale below that you believe accurately reflects the LEVEL OF SUPPORT AND ASSISTANCE received by the student teacher in his or her classroom.

1 Low support/assistance	2 3 4 5	6 High support/assistance
Little if any help available through specialists, instructional assistants, parent volunteers, or older students; also less supervisory support and assistance than expected, desired, or needed.	<----------------->	Considerable help available through specialists and either other adults or older students (or both); also excellent to good supervisory support and assistance.

Basis for Decision

Select the two to three items below that *most* influenced the judgment you provided above.

___ a. Help with ESL students
___ b. Help with mildly disabled
___ c. Help with severely disabled
___ d. Help with emotionally disturbed
___ e. Help with other students
___ f. Instructional assistants
___ g. Parent helpers
___ h. Older student helpers
___ i. Other (please explain)

I have reviewed the information on this page and find it to be accurate to the best of my judgment.

Teacher (signature) ______________________

Date ______________________

Appendix F

Teaching Context Description: Special Education

____________	____________	____________	____________
Student Teacher	School	District	Term and Year

____________	____________	____________
College Supervisor	Cooperating Teacher	School Principal

Descriptive Information

Placement

Setting	**Percent of time**	**Work sample setting?**	**Role**	**Percent of time**	**Work sample role?**
Itinerant	______	Yes / No	Direct instruction	______	Yes / No
Self-contained class	______	Yes / No	Consultation with general education teachers	______	Yes / No
Homebound	______	Yes / No	Consultation with other specialists	______	Yes / No
Inclusion-total	______	Yes / No	Case management (IEP development and monitoring)	______	Yes / No
Inclusion-partial	______	Yes / No	Resource room management	______	Yes / No
Resource center/room	______	Yes / No	Supervision of teaching assistants	______	Yes / No

Where relevant, please rate the accessibility of the setting(s):

Easily accessible ___
Adequately accessible ___
Inadequately accessible ___

Where relevant, please identify the primary communication modes/systems:

ASL ___ MCE ___
PSE ___ Spoken/Signed ___
Other ____________________

Staff Variables

Number of teaching assistants ____ Level of training: 1 2 3 4 5 (Low Moderate High)

Number of other specialists ____ Level of training: 1 2 3 4 5 (Low Moderate High)

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Comments on the student teacher's placement:

Pupils' Characteristics

Primary disabling condition(s)	Percent of caseload	Ages	Range of needs				
			1	2	3	4	5
			Low	Moderate		Severe	
Learning disabled	______	____	1	2	3	4	5
Mental retardation	______	____	1	2	3	4	5
Speech/language impaired	______	____	1	2	3	4	5
Hearing impaired	______	____	1	2	3	4	5
Visually impaired	______	____	1	2	3	4	5
Deaf/blind	______	____	1	2	3	4	5
Seriously emotionally disturbed	______	____	1	2	3	4	5
Traumatic brain injury	______	____	1	2	3	4	5
Autistic	______	____	1	2	3	4	5
Orthopedically impaired	______	____	1	2	3	4	5
Section 504	______	____	1	2	3	4	5

Number of students served for whom English is a second language (ESL) ____
Number of students served with Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD) ____

Placement Demand and Support Rating

Placement Demand Rating

Review the information you have provided above about the placement and provide a rating on the 6-point scale below reflecting the LEVEL OF DEMAND placed on you as a student teacher.

1	2 3 4 5	6
Low demand	<----------------->	High demand

Basis for Rating

Select the two to three items below that most influenced your rating:

___ Variety of settings
___ Variety of roles
___ Range of pupils' needs
___ Quality/accessibility of setting(s)
___ Other (please explain): ____________________________________

Placement Support Rating

Review the information you have provided above about the placement and provide a rating on the 6-point scale below reflecting the LEVEL OF SUPPORT available to you as a student teacher.

1	2 3 4 5	6
Low support	<----------------->	High support

Basis for Rating

Select the two to three items below that most influenced your rating:

___ Cooperating teacher's support
___ Administrator's support
___ Instructional assistant's support
___ Parents'/volunteers' support
___ Other (please explain): ____________________________________

Appendix G

Mini-Work Sample–Elementary School (Poetry)

TWS Descriptors–Elementary

TWS Component	Availability	Quality of Component
Context description	Provided	Extensive description of classroom and some children; thin on community, school, and curriculum expectations.
Rationale	Provided	Weak. Discussed her views. Made no connections to the state or district goals or to pupils' needs or reasons for her instructional strategies.
Goals and objectives	Provided	Very thorough. Portrayed relationship between goals and objectives. Most objectives lacked an explicit criterion or, at least, a reference to scoring guidelines or a rubric. Well-written lesson plan objective, though.
Instructional steps	Provided	Very thorough. Included modifications for special children and reflections on the success of each lesson. Use of time clarified well in her calendar.
Assessment	Provided	Adequate. Item #2 calls for an apparent application of concepts being taught. Some directions must have been given orally. Couldn't tell if the assessment and the objectives corresponded.
Learning gain data	Provided	Adequate. Shown for individuals and clusters. No analyses provided stating which goals and objectives were or were not met.
Reflection on data	Provided	Adequate. Did discuss results as reflected in two different types of assessment items. Limited discussion of unusual individual performance.
Reflection on self	Provided	Thin. Discussed pupils' growth extensively. Limited discussion of her teaching success, assessment techniques, or view of her needs for future improvement.
General comments	Only 1 of her 10 lessons provided here. No examples of pupils' work was provided by the student. She did include reference list within the lesson plans.	

CLASSROOM DESCRIPTION

Brush Elementary School in Salem has about 500 students in Grades K-5. It includes 19 classroom teachers, six support teachers, and seven people on the classified staff. It provides a safe, welcoming environment.

Ms. Teacher's classroom in Brush is a very nonthreatening, friendly place to live and learn. She has created a wonderful, exciting, and trusting classroom climate for her students where there almost always seems to be an enjoyment for learning. Ms. Teacher's classroom is very curriculum based, and she and the students work hard to cover a lot of ground and learn as much as possible. Her expectations are high but reasonable.

The class consists of 29 fifth-grade students. There are 14 girls and 15 boys. The students have a choice to be in either rows or groups. There is a section of each in the classroom. Ms. Teacher's desk is in the corner in the front of the room. I chose to have my desk in the back of the room. There are two sections in the room: a main area where the desks are situated and a carpeted area in the back. One lengthwise wall of the classroom is made up of windows that give a view of the parking lot and the busy street on the edge of the campus.

In the class there are five students who have been identified as TAG: Albert, Bill, Cody, Dan, and Evelyn. Albert is a bright boy who reads science books in his leisure time. He is an unmedicated ADHD student and has a hard time focusing and organizing himself. Bill is a very quiet, knowledgeable boy. He is very hard to talk to because he does not like to speak. He always walks away in a shy manner. Dan was identified as TAG, but Ms. Teacher and I disagree with this identification. He is simply a hard worker who pays attention and does his work well. Evelyn is a student who pays attention to detail, and she is known to spend double or triple the amount of time necessary to complete a task.

RATIONALE

Poetry is something that many of us avoid because it is supposedly a romantic form of writing that is often about nature and love. In reality, poetry is a wonderfully exciting experience for people of all ages. There are many different moods expressed through poetry, not just love and romance. In this unit, I will be doing a wide variety of things relating to poetry. I will strive to build a fun, safe classroom full of love for poetry.

One of my goals for the unit is to teach a variety of poems so the students have practice writing different kinds of poetry. Some of these forms will be more difficult than others. Some contain rhyme patterns, and others focus more on the syllables of each line. Some, such as limericks, have strict rules about both rhyme patterns and syllables per line. Through these poetry forms, the students will also learn some history about poetry and the people who invented the various forms.

Another thing we will be learning is the different elements of poetry and how they are used. The students will learn these elements, write examples of their own using these elements, and eventually use these elements to create beautiful poems.

Because it is important for the students to see their work published, they will make a book into which they will put their poetry. They will be the authors and illustrators for their own book. I believe this will build a feeling of ownership in each student for his or her writing. It will resemble a real book with a title page, table of contents, poems, and illustrations. This project will be the grand finale for the section on poetry forms and elements.

At the same time we are learning poetry, we will also be learning about insects. As a science integration, we will be working on a project with the "Joyful Noise" poems by Paul Fleischman. The students will learn about various insects through the poems and through additional research. The students and a partner will read the poems in a presentation that will be recorded on a video.

UNIT GOALS AND LESSON OBJECTIVES

Unit Goal 1.0: Upon completion of this unit, students will have learned a variety of forms of poetry and will have practiced writing in each of the forms.

1.1. After a minilesson reading examples and learning the form of a Name Poem, students will be able to compose their original Name Poem in their poetry journal.

1.2. After a minilesson on reading examples and creating whole group examples of Concrete Poems, students will be able to create their own Concrete Poem for their poetry journals.

1.3. After a lesson on studying the forms of a diamonte poem, reading examples of diamonte poems, and composing examples as a whole group, students will be able to compose at least two of their own poems using this poetry form.

1.4. After a minilesson on reading examples of couplets and understanding the rhyme pattern, students will be able to compose at least two of their own couplets in their poetry journal.

1.5. After a lesson on basic rhyme patterns and after reading and identifying various quatrains, students will be able to compose quatrains in both small groups and individually in their poetry journals.

1.6. After a lesson on reading and studying the form of haiku and tanka poems, students will be able to compose at least two examples of the haiku form and at least one example of the tanka form in their poetry journal.

1.7. After a minilesson on reading and writing whole-group examples of the clerihew poetry form, students will be able to compose at least two original clerihew poems in their poetry journal.

1.8. After a lesson on reading the rhyme pattern and rhythm of a limerick, students will be able to compose at least two of their own limericks in their poetry journals.

1.9. After an art/poetry lesson on creating a dada poem, students will use magazine cutouts to create their own dada poems.

Unit Goal 2.0: Upon completion of this unit, students will be able to identify, respond to, and give their own examples of a variety of elements of poetry.

2.1. After a lesson on sense imagery, students will put on a "zoom lens" to learn to use descriptive words to present an image they visualize as being related to their theme.

2.2. After reading several poems featuring metaphor and simile, students will be able to identify at least 12 uses of figurative language in the poetry to describe an object, and they will be able to write at least three of their own examples of metaphor and simile in their poetry journal.

2.3. After a lesson reading examples and identifying the use of personification in poetry, students will be able to write a poem in a form of their choice, using personification.

2.4. After a lesson on onomatopoeia, or "echo words," students will be able to write a list of echo words and will use these words to compose an original poem related to their theme.

2.5. After a lesson on the use and effects of repetition in poetry, students will be able to identify the use of repetition in poetry, and they will use this element to compose a poem in their poetry journal.

2.6. After a lesson on alliteration, students will be able to give examples of alliteration as a whole group and in their poetry journal.

2.7. After a lesson on rhyme and basic rhyme patterns used in poetry, students will be able to identify various rhyme patterns, and they will be able to write poems using these patterns.

Unit Goal 3.0: Upon completion of this unit, students will be able to present a poem orally to an audience while demonstrating control of rate, volume, eye contact, expression, and gestures.

3.1. After a lesson and several practice sessions of reading poetry to an audience, students will be able to read a poem aloud while demonstrating control of rate, volume, eye contact, expression, and gestures.

3.2. After a lesson on reading "Joyful Noise" poems by Paul Fleischman, students will read a poem with a partner to an audience while demonstrating expression, control of rate, volume, eye contact, and gestures.

Unit Goal 4.0: Upon completion of this unit, students will have created a poetry book containing their own poetry and artwork.

4.1. After a lesson on choosing a theme for the poetry book, students will choose a theme and web ideas related to their theme in their poetry journal.

4.2. Students will prepare for the poetry book project by selecting eight of their best poems from their poetry journal and revising and editing these poems for the final draft.

4.3. After a lesson on the process and techniques of marble painting, students will create their own artwork for the cover of their poetry book.

4.4. After a demonstration of sewing and binding their poetry books, students will sew the pages and bind the cover of their book.

4.5. After a lesson and several work time sessions on the poetry books, students will turn in a poetry book complete with a title page, table of contents, at least eight of their own poems, and artwork to enhance the beauty and expression of their poems.

Unit Goal 5.0: Upon completion of this unit, the students will be able to use a variety of reading strategies to increase comprehension and learning.

5.1. After reading and evaluating an e. e. cummings free-style poem and discovering how form affects the mood and message of a poem, students will write a poem in their journal with a chosen style and form.

5.2. After reading and evaluating the poem "Dancing," students will answer questions on a worksheet related to imagery in poetry and the meaning and understanding of a poem.

5.3. After reading "A Poison Tree" and discussing the words and meaning of the poem, students will be able to write a paragraph restating the author's main idea and the underlying message of the poem.

5.4. After reading "A Joyful Noise" and translating any unknown words, students will be able to rewrite the poem in their own words in a paragraph form.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Poetry Month Calendar

Tuesday	April 7	Preassessment
Wednesday	April 8	Poetry reading introduction
Thursday	April 9	Poetry journal introduction; theme development; name poems; poetry reading practice
Friday	April 10	Concrete poems; send letters to parents; poetry reading practice
Monday	April 13	Mrs. Name shares a poem; sense imagery lesson (Zoom lens); poetry reading
Tuesday	April 14	Diamonte poems; poetry readings
Wednesday	April 15	Mrs. Another shares a poem; metaphor and simile; poetry reading
Thursday	April 16	Mr. Man shares a poem; alliteration; couplets
Monday	April 20	Ms. Teacher shares a poem; quatrains
Wednesday	April 22	Read "Dancing"; Haiku and Tanka
Thursday	April 23	Mrs. Other shares a poem; personification; e. e. cummings reading worksheet

Friday	April 24	Marble painting for book cover; onomatopoeia; repetition;
Weekend		Check journals for understanding and completeness
Monday	April 27	Clerihew; "A Poison Tree" reading worksheet; sew poetry books
Tuesday	April 28	Poetry book introduction; limericks
Wednesday	April 29	Mrs. Woman shares a poem; choose and edit poems for book; sew poetry books
Thursday	April 30	"Joyful Noise" introduction; insect research and poem translation
Friday	May 1	Dada poems; "Joyful Noise" practice and research
Monday	May 4	Poetry book work time; "Joyful Noise" practice and research; bind poetry books
Tuesday	May 5	Poetry book work time; "Joyful Noise" artwork
Wednesday	May 6	Poetry book work time; "Joyful Noise" presentations
Thursday	May 7	Poetry book work time
Friday	May 8	Poetry book DUE
Monday	May 11	Poetry assessment review
Tuesday	May 12	Poetry assessment

Example Daily Lesson Plan

Unit Goal 2.0: Upon completion of the unit, students will be able to identify, respond to, and give their own examples of a variety of elements of poetry.

Lesson objective 2.2: After reading several poems featuring metaphor and simile, students will be able to identify at least 12 uses of figurative language in the poetry to describe an object, and they will be able to write at least three of their own examples of metaphor and simile in their poetry journal.

Time allotment: 45 minutes

Materials: Overheads of the poems, worksheets, onion

Anticipatory set: Either on the overhead or chalkboard, write the question, "How is an onion like poetry?" We will brainstorm ideas. Then show them an onion and start peeling off the layers. Continue sharing ideas. Allow as many ideas as possible. Ask, "Would anyone eat the outside of an onion? What is the difference between the outside and the inside layers of the onion?" Explain that a poem is like an onion because sometimes you peel away fancy layers to get at the best "stuff." Oftentimes, a poet uses figurative language to dress up a poem and you have to "peel away" some of those layers to get at the true meaning.

Procedures:

1. Do the anticipatory set.
2. Explain to the students they will be learning about two of the forms of figurative language—simile and metaphor. Explain that a simile is a direct

comparison using "like" or "as" two compare to objects. Metaphor is an indirect comparison using "is" to compare. How was our discussion about poetry and onions similar to using figurative language? What element were we using? [Simile]

3. Cover the title of "sun" and read the poem on the overhead. Ask the students what is being described. Then explain that it is a metaphor and ask them what two things are being compared (sun and light show).
4. Cover the title of "Apartment House" and have the students guess what is being described. What parts are simile and what parts are metaphor? What is being compared?
5. Read "dreams" and have the students identify the metaphors.
6. Hand out the worksheets. Have the students read each poem first. Then they will underline the phrases that contain metaphors or similes and number them. On the back of the work sheet, they will write the number, name what two objects are being compared, and identify whether it is a simile or a metaphor. They are to find 12.
7. When the students have finished they will turn the work sheets in. In their poetry journal they are to write three similes and three metaphors relating to their theme.

Closure: Have volunteers share the similes and metaphors they wrote in their journals.

Modifications: For the IEP students, they must find at least eight phrases that contain either a simile or a metaphor. The other students will be challenged to find more than 12 phrases. The IEP students may also need help writing their own figurative language in their journals.

Assessment: Check for understanding on the work sheet. The poetry journal will be reviewed at the end of the third week for understanding and completeness.

Resources:

Atwell, N. (1987). *In the middle—writing, reading, and learning with adolescents.* _______ :Boyton/Cook.

Jerome-Cohen, D. (Ed.) (1992). *Exploring lyric poetry.* ____:Scholastic.

Reflection: I feel this lesson went well. I wish I had spent more time making sure the students knew which word went well with each definition. They seemed to get them mixed up easily. I was very pleased with certain students who looked at the work sheet very carefully and were analyzing each line to determine whether it contained figurative language. These students found a lot more to add to the list than 12. Other students were only concerned with finishing the required amount; they did just that but some of their answers were not complete enough.

Assessment

Poetry Test

1. Prove to me you know what each of these words means. You may write a definition or give an example to prove it.
   - *Alliteration*
   - *Onomatopoeia*
   - *Personification*
   - *Simile*
   - *Metaphor*
2. Write a definition of the form or give an example of each of the following forms of poetry:
   - *Couplet*
   - *Quatrain*
   - *Haiku*
   - *Limerick*
3. Is there anything else you would like to tell me about what you learned during poetry month?

PRESENTATION OF DATA

Student	Preassessment average	Posttest average	Change
1 (Cody)	8	20	2
2	8	22	14
3	7	17	10
4	6	14	8
5	6	25	19
6 (Evelyn)	6	27	21
	7.71	23.3	16.2
7	5	17	12
8 (Dan)	5	18	13
9	5	13	8
10 (Albert)	4	25	21
11 (Bill)	4	22	18
12	4	13	9
13	4	17	13
14	4	19	15
15	4	19	15
16	4	16	12
	4.3	17.9	13.6
17	3	15	12
18	3	5	2
19	3	18	15
20	3	8	5
21 (Ryan)	3	16	13
	3.0	12.4	9.4
22	2	5	3
23	2	10	8
24	2	18	16
25	2	19	17
26	2	n/a	n/a
27	n/a	9	n/a
28	n/a	n/a	n/a
	2.0	12.2	10.2

DATA INTERPRETATION

For the postassessment, I was assessing the students' knowledge of the various forms and elements of poetry. This was only one of my final assessments, because the poetry book, the poetry reading, and the "Joyful Noise" project were also final assessments. This postassessment was a test in worksheet form. Two sections were more objective and the third was more subjective.

In the first section, I listed elements of poetry and I asked the students to give either the definition or an example of each. I explained that they would earn more points if they could write both. I gave three points for each part. If a student wrote both an example and a definition they earned three points. If they wrote only one of those, they earned two points. If they wrote an example or a definition that was matched with the incorrect word, they received one point. Very few students earned the whole 15 points for part one.

In the second section, I listed four forms of poetry and I asked the students again to write a definition or an example of each. I graded these the same way as in section one.

In the third section, I gave the students an opportunity to tell me anything else they had learned during the poetry unit. Many students wrote definitions of other poetry forms and elements. For these types of answers, I used the same grading scale as in the first two sections. Most of the students wrote a comment about their affective learning. A great example of this was Ryan, who had said on the preassessment that "poetry just wasn't his thing" but on the postassessment wrote that he "had learned that poetry can be fun" and he wished he could take back what he had said before. Several other students also expressed their enjoyment of the unit. This had been an unwritten goal of mine throughout the month. For these types of answers, I gave one additional point.

REFLECTIVE ESSAY

Throughout the duration of my work sample and my student teaching, my students and I learned a great deal. I grew in my management, instruction, planning, and assessment skills. The students learned a lot about reading, writing, and appreciating poetry as well as many other things. The outcome of this experience has made me more confident and effective as an educator of children.

I started the 3 weeks with some hesitation. I was not sure what it would entail and I did not know all the subject matter as well as I wanted. I continuously stayed late working on lessons to make sure I was ready for the next day.

Because of the awkward timing with state testing, I gave a very brief preassessment at the beginning of the poetry unit. After the poetry survey, I knew they did not know very much about the various forms and elements of poetry. Consequently, I knew I would be focusing on those things. On the preassessment, I asked the students how they felt about poetry. One student's response really sticks out in my mind. Ryan said poetry really wasn't his "thing." There were quite a few students who said they thought poetry was boring and not very interesting. These responses turned into a challenge for me to make the unit fun. I did.

Throughout the month we read and studied several different genres of poems from different authors. The students were introduced to these things to help them see poetry in a broader sense. Eventually they realized poetry was fun and a lot more interesting than they had ever thought before. I was excited about learning and teaching poetry and it was contagious for the students. There were several volunteers who wanted to read a poem to the class during the "dead times." I heard authors' names in their conversations. I saw them reading poetry books during their free time.

Appendix H

Mini-Work Sample–Secondary School (Drama)

TWS Descriptors–Middle School

TWS Component	Availability	Quality of Component
Context description	Provided	Mixed. Seems to hold low expectations for Hispanics. Detailed description of community. Very limited discussion of the pupils academically in terms of their past achievement or past experiences with drama, though some was found in the rationale.
Rationale	Provided	Thorough in relating to state and district goals; some mention of special needs though alignment with pupils' needs was not explained; and no reasons were given for the strategies chosen. Connection to state and district goals was persuasive.
Goals and objectives	Provided	Described alignment; relationship between goals and objectives not portrayed; some objectives lacked a criterion, and others lacked a clear verb.
Instructional steps	Provided	Clear. Each step seems logically related to the objective.
Assessment	Provided	Both written and performance measures are taken. Rubrics are shown. Interesting format for a pretest. Should be enjoyable for pupils. Claimed to have an affective measure.
Learning gain data	Provided	Individual and cluster scores and gains shown.
Reflection on data	Provided	Thin, may have been disjointed in organizing her paper. No distinctions concerning learning gains around posttest objectives nor for written or performance assessments. Did provide reflection on daily performance and a few individuals. In the discussion of the pretest, some analysis of knowledge and performance needs were identified.
Reflection on self	Provided	Adequate. Nothing, though, on her long-term goals for her own professional development.
General comments	The TWS author did not assess any of the affect she hoped to influence. Two of the 15 lessons taught were included in this mini-TWS. Would have helped if she provided examples of pupils' work.	

SETTING

Myers is a middle school located in the east side of the Salem-Keizer school district. Built in 1956, the school is in the center of a very diverse community. The Myers community has a growing population of Hispanics. It is known to be a very colorful part of Salem. East Salem is primarily a low-income area. Its characteristics include smaller older homes, many apartments, and a majority of blue collar workers and single parents. One large housing development within the school's population area tends to be middle class. This area is also where the majority of the volunteers and LSAC members come from. Due to the low involvement of parents and the community, the school lacks in extra support especially in the area of donations. Another interesting fact is that the community is rather generational. Families raised in Salem tend to stay. It would not be considered a growing town, but a secure town where support is often based within the structure of the family unit.

Myers itself reflects its community. It too is diverse and contains a majority of low-income students. The school has approximately 900 students and the classrooms are packed. But no matter how challenging this school may be, the highly supportive veteran staff keeps its mission in mind: "to provide a quality program in the basic skill areas . . . capable of sustaining frequent change and modification while providing stability and security for the students."

It is true that frequent change and modifications are occurring. Myers is in the process of implementing Oregon's 21st Century Schools Act, including the Certificate of Initial Mastery (CIM). Plus the school is adding sixth-graders and changing district boundaries, which will drop enrollment considerably. Thus, the school is in a transition period that is both exciting and scary. Another transition for Myers has been the rise of gangs. Myers has had a reputation for crime, gangs, and violence, and part of this is attributed to the growing multicultural population. Middle school is a vulnerable time and some students at Myers choose to be a part of a gang. But there is a positive side to multiculturalism. Myers is the home of the "English as a Second Language" (ESL) program and was the first home of Salem's "Newcomers Center." The staff and faculty take a proactive stance and emphasize the appreciation and education of diversity.

Another aspect that the faculty and staff feel is important is computer education. The school has received grants to set up what has come to be known as the best computer lab in the district. But with a lack of general funds the school cannot make advancements in other equipment areas. Most equipment is standard. Furniture and equipment total $40,000. There are 39 classrooms, a gym, a cafeteria, and a library. Other specific information includes the following: the school is a closed campus, the students are graded on a letter grade system, the student conduct plan follows the 24J district discipline code by using the PASS room, and the Myers' Mustang Award is given every week (one in each class by each teacher) as a form of recognition.

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Drama is the subject I taught in a class of 22 seventh- and eighth-graders (the majority were females). The class included one student who was an ESL student. There were no official special needs students in the class, and the school does promote inclusive teaching with disabled and special needs students. Although this class contained a variety of different levels and needs, each student gained a tremendous amount. The unit was titled "Character Development," and through the course of this unit many skills were developed. The class ultimately learned how to portray a believable character. This unit was chosen because it adhered to the expectations aligned in the Salem-Keizer outcome-based curriculum and because it gave the students skills that could be applied to all aspects of life. Drama gives confidence and builds self-esteem. Drama is certainly an integral part of a well-rounded education and I feel privileged to be a part of such a process. In a school like Myers there are a lot of at-risk students. Drama is just what they need. It is something for them to latch on to, learn from, and succeed in!

RATIONALE AND RELATIONSHIP TO STANDARDS

The theme of the unit was character development. It was a 3-week unit taught in the middle of the semester. The timing was perfect. The students had spent weeks on the basics: pantomime, story theater, development of stage terms, vocal development, and improvisation. The class was ready to move on to a different level and develop a character. This 3-week unit was a challenge and was exactly what they needed according to my judgment as well as the district, state, and CIM goals.

In its outcome-based curriculum goals, the district states that a drama student at the middle school level should be able to "apply lifetime skills of critical thinking and problem solving through participating in staging a scene or monologue" (Outcome 3). It also states that the student is to "demonstrate an understanding of script format . . . and develop a character based on insights gained from dramatic literature" (Outcome 4) and "use posture, gesture, facial expressions, and body movement to convey character" (Outcome 1). Three of the district's main objectives deal with character development. Thus this unit was in definite alignment with district goals.

According to the state's goals of theater curriculum 1.1 and 1.2, "the student will be able to demonstrate body awareness, control, and concentration skills through expressive use of voice and body" and "understand and develop the skills of imagination." My unit was exactly what was required by the state. In addition to state standards, a CIM standard was met as well: "The student will draw upon imaginative resources to create characters and environments."

This unit included collaborative activities that required the ability to think critically, to create imaginatively, to call upon emotional resources, and to explore life through body and voice while satisfying curiosity. Throughout the course of this unit the students learned the art of developing a character by using five elements: observation, concentration, imagination, emotional memory, and motivation. The lessons in this unit were intended to challenge the student to think creatively and reflectively. Thus, this character development unit had a definite relationship to common curriculum, state, district, and CIM goals.

GOALS

The student, upon completion of the unit, will demonstrate an increased knowledge and understanding of the five elements involved in developing a character and will participate in class activities.

The student, upon completion of the unit, will demonstrate an increased awareness and appreciation for the process of developing a character and portraying one.

The student, upon completion of the unit, will develop a character using the five elements, write a script, and memorize and perform a monologue meeting the criteria within the rubric.

PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES

Lesson 1: After receiving an explanation, definition, and presentation on observation, the students will be able to participate in three different class activities.

Lesson 2: After a presentation on the importance of concentration when creating a believable character, the students will actively participate in three class activities, displaying the appropriate indicators on the performance rubric.

Lesson 3: After receiving an explanation and description of the use of imagination in acting, the students will understand its importance in character development and demonstrate their understanding by displaying the appropriate indicators on the performance rubric.

Lesson 4: After receiving a definition and description of the importance of emotional memory, the students will be able to demonstrate their understanding by performing in an activity titled "Three-Word Tie" where they will display the two appropriate indicators on the performance rubric.

Lesson 5: After explaining the importance and meaning of motivation, the students will be able to demonstrate their understanding by participating in class activities and performing a final activity that will be rated according to the performance rubric.

Lesson 6: After a presentation on how to memorize, the students will be able to use the suggestions and helpful hints while practicing their monologue and perform it completely memorized on the day assigned.

Lesson 7: After giving a short definition of scripting and a handout, the students will be able to understand the concept of scripting and how it can contribute to acting by correctly using at least three out of the six scripting symbols on a practice handout and then performing in front of a partner.

Lesson 8: After choosing a monologue, the students will memorize, block, rehearse, and work toward achieving, understanding, and demonstrating the elements of a believable character with their chosen monologue. If students use class time efficiently, they will receive participation points (5 per day).

Lesson 9: The students, after participating in a short warm-up, will use all of their knowledge gained throughout the entire unit and perform their monologue meeting the criteria specified in the class performance monologue evaluation.

PRETEST: WRITTEN

Name ______________________________

True or False

Circle T if you believe the question to be true or F if false.

T or F Real-life experiences are the key to portraying emotion on stage.

T or F The goal of the actor is to believe in his/her character and thus allow the audience to believe.

T or F If actors walk around looking at the floor, they are exhibiting motivation.

T or F An actor creates belief through constant thought and attention to what he/she is doing.

T or F In an "actor's notebook," actors record their dreams.

Matching

Choose the letter that best fits the definition.

A. Concentration B. Observation C. Imagination D. Emotional Memory E. Motivation

______ 1. The most important aspect in theater. Without it the actor is nothing.

______ 2. Recalling of a specific feeling that you have had or observed.

______ 3. The ability to direct all your thoughts, energies, and skills into what you are doing at any single moment.

______ 4. Being aware of character types and noticing how people communicate emotions.

______ 5. The "why" of characterization.

Multiple Choice

Circle the best answer.

1. Taste, smell, touch, and sound are all an important aspect of . . .
   A. Make-Up B. Concentration
   C. Observation D. Lighting the stage
2. Deciding how to decorate your room is an example of . . .
   A. Imagination B. Sense Recall
   C. Scene Design D. Observation
3. When not talking, actors should be . . .
   A. Fixing their costumes B. Standing still
   C. Thinking about the next line D. Listening
4. On stage, what changes as the motivation changes?
   A. Character B. Line Delivery
   C. Movement D. A, B, and C

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PRETEST PART 2–THE PERFORMANCE

Students will be grouped in sets of 2-3. Each set of students will be assigned one of the vignettes below (A-K). They will be directed to perform their vignette using the following instructions:

- First, decide which part you will take. Then decide the purpose each of you will try to achieve, and the action you will perform.
- Second, each of you has an opposing purpose and as the scene progresses you will attempt to carry out your particular purpose.
- Third, each argument will be given and results will depend on which argument is stronger.

Vignette A

You are studying for an exam tomorrow. Your friend arrives and tries to get you to go to the school play with her.

Vignette B

Two of you are in the family room at home. One of you wants to clean up the clutter; the other is lazy and tries to avoid the cleaning job.

Vignette C

Two of you are hanging a picture. One wants the picture put above the fireplace. The other wants it put on the wall.

Vignette D

A brother and a sister are trying to decide what to get their mom for Mother's Day. One thinks they should make her something and the other thinks they should buy her the vase that she wanted.

Vignette E

Two cheerleaders are working out a yell routine. One wants to jump in the air after each yell. The other insists they should bow with their pompoms in front of them at the end of each routine.

Vignette F

Two boys are packing their small car for a ski trip. One thinks the skis should be carried on top of the car; the other insists they should be mounted on the back.

Vignette G

Three of you are camping in the forest. One insists that the roast should be cooked over the open fire that he is now making. The two others think the roast should be wrapped in leaves and placed in a cooking pit they are digging.

Vignette H

Cochairmen are decorating the gym for a Thanksgiving dance. One wants to hang the theme decoration, a huge turkey, from the center of the ceiling. The other wants to place it on the floor by the entrance.

Vignette I

Two girls are helping each other with a home permanent. One girl wants to cut off her long hair. The other doesn't want her to and attempts to keep her from doing it.

Vignette J

Two boys are trying to decide what to do after they graduate. One thinks they should both go to college. He shows his friend his college catalogue and tries to get him to fill out an application form. The other boy thinks they should join the Army. He wants to telephone the enlistment officer and complete an enlistment form.

Vignette K

One of you is packing a suitcase, determined to take a trip. A friend thinks you are foolish to leave and attempts to keep you from packing.

CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT–PERFORMANCE RUBRIC

Concentration

2 • Constant thought and attention are given to the character.
 • The student is focused and does not break character.
 • When on stage the actor is listening.
1 • Attention wanders occasionally.
 • The student breaks character and loses focus or occasion.
 • Periodically the student does not listen to other characters.
0 • Limited thought, attention, or listening were demonstrated.
 • The student is regularly out of character.

Imagination

2 • Imaginative story and characters were exhibited.
 • Story is energized by the imaginative spirit.
 • Entertaining.
1 • Play lacks a creative story.
 • There is limited energy and imaginative spirit.
0 • Very little energy is present and story line lacks creativity.

Emotional Memory

2 • A wide variety of emotions are used.
 • The emotions are believable and real.
1 • Too few emotions are used to support the story.
 • Emotions lack believability and expression
0 • Almost no emotions or facal expressions are used.

Motivation

2 • Action is clear and believable.
 • All stage movement exhibits motivation
 • The character's desires are communicated in believable action.
1 • The action is slightly unclear and occasionally lacks believability.
 • The character's desires are too seldom communicated.
0 • No motivation is exhibited or it is unclear.

The pretest is a conglomeration of multiple choice, true-false, and matching items as well as a performance test. This format enables me to test for knowledge and psychomotor skills as well as establish an idea as to their affective status. The test in its entirety is designed to test the five key concepts involved in developing a character. The questions are very tightly related to each lesson's objective and the results of the test are very helpful in determining what points need to be emphasized and/or eliminated.

After tallying the pretest items, I found that nothing really stood out. The questions on the test portion were equally answered incorrectly as well as correctly. The average was between 14-16 students answering a question incorrectly. A significant amount of students lacked knowledge in all areas. The performance test does not have questions. It is simply a rubric for rating performance. And from this test I learned a tremendous amount. The students had a long way to go before they were believable. Many students did the best they could, but others were not as motivated, possibly because they did not have the tools. I gathered my work was cut out for me. Every question on the test was answered incorrectly by at least one third of the class, the performances had a ways to go before they would be believable, and some attitudes needed attention. With this information in hand, the fun began! Could they do it? Would they improve? Would they come to love the subject?

LESSON PLANS

Lesson 3

Course: Drama

Lesson Title: Imagination

Objective: After receiving an explanation and description of the use of imagination in acting the students will understand its importance in character development and demonstrate their understanding by displaying the appropriate indicators on the performance rubric.

Procedure:

1. This is a half-day lesson that begins with the question What is the most important thing needed to be a good actor? Without it the actor is nothing and the production is void! IMAGINATION!
2. I will then explain what the imagination brings to a character.
   a. Believability b. Energy c. Feeling d. Purpose
3. Give examples of how the imagination is used in day to day life: decorate room, create a centerpiece, make a gift, etc.
4. If there are no questions as to the meaning and importance of the imagination in character development, I will continue with the following activities:
   Mystery Object—Pass an object around the room and the students imagine the object as something other than what it is.
   Invisible Box—In the middle of the circle an imaginary box is placed and the class pulls out imaginary objects from the box.
   Story, Story, Die—The students sit in a circle and one student begins a story and the next adds on until it goes full circle.
5. Wrap up the lesson with a quick review.

Materials: Puzzle piece (imagination), object for "Mystery Object."

Evaluation: The students will be given 5 points for participation.

Reflective Comments: Good lesson but I need to move quickly to fit it all in.

Lesson 8

Objective: After choosing a monologue, the student will memorize, block, rehearse, and work towards achieving, understanding, and demonstrating the elements of a believable character with their chosen monologue. If the student uses class time efficiently, he or she will receive participation points (5 per day).

Procedure:

1. Begin the lesson by reviewing key concepts through a brainstorm activity. Have the class list 20 of the elements involved in a monologue.
2. After the list is complete, use a visual to introduce practicing all the elements one can work on to perfect a monologue. Suggest that the visual is the student's "To Do List" and when every element is checked off he or she is ready to perform.
3. Before they practice write this quote on the board: "The most common error is the attempt to create the whole character at once." Remind them that this is a long process that takes time and patience but is rewarding and fun!
4. Invite Creative Chaos and let them go.
5. As they practice I will wander around and monitor their progress. My job is to encourage and inspire!
6. Before class is over remind them to take their script and their character home to work on—this is your bedtime story.

Materials: Poster and pens

Comments: Great approach and visual. Again remember to check up on #20, #21, and #22 (the slower learners) and make adaptations in expectations such as shortening their monologue. Almost forgot to record participation points.

POSTTEST ANALYSIS

	Individual pretest (%)	Group average (%)	Individual posttest (%)	Group average (%)	Individual change (%)	Group change (%)
Top quartile						
1	80		93		13	
2	80		100		20	
3	77		93		16	
4	77		100		23	
5	77		90		13	
6	77		97		20	
7	77		93		16	
Average		77		95		15
Second quartile						
8	73		90		17	
9	73		90		17	
10	73		93		20	
11	70		100		30	
12	70		83		13	
Average		71		91		19
Third quartile						
13	67		97		30	
14	67		83		16	
15	67		93		26	
16	67		83		16	
17	63		90		27	
18	63		90		27	
19	63		90		27	
Average		65		89		24
Fourth quartile						
20	57		73		16	
21	50		83		33	
22	50		70		20	
Average		52		75		23
Total		69		89		20

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Yes! I am pleased with the results. Learning has occurred. I knew it would, but it is always nice to have proof. The students worked tremendously hard and their hard work paid off. They each now have within them the basic tools needed to develop a character and create a successful performance.

Specifically, I would not change much about the post-test. Possibly I would delete question 4 in the multiple choice section. This question seemed to cause confusion. In addition, I would add a question that requires them to reflect on how they feel about drama and the process of developing a character. This would help in that it is an affective domain question and it would better measure their attitude change versus observations alone.

In general every quartile group improved and went above my expectations. I was proud of the English as a Second Language student (20) as well as students 21 and 22. They not only improved on the written test but developed a sense of confidence and assurance in themselves. They now know that they can perform and that means the world to me. That is why I teach!

EVALUATIVE AND REFLECTIVE ESSAY

Learning occurred! Yes, they did it! They improved! And I do believe that their excitement and appreciation for drama increased! This entire unit has been quite exciting and rewarding. Every day I came to class anxious to share my love of theater. Each lesson was fine-tuned, carefully thought through, and then enthusiastically shared with the students. The results of the tests are tremendous but that is only half of the joy. Joy comes from simply teaching, interacting, and observing.

I feel part of my success was due to my contagious enthusiasm for my content area. This is always an important aspect of my teaching. Another important aspect of my teaching is my use of visuals and reviews. I am a very visual learner and my lessons reflect that. I take time to create colorful visuals that remain on the walls as reminders. These reminders are referred to continuously throughout each daily lesson. This repetition of both sight and sound help in the retention of the concepts and the variety of my unit.

In future units I look to improve my flexibility. I feel it is important to adjust lesson plans when needed. If you are running out of time you can always carry over the lesson into the next day. They say it is always better to overplan, but I also need to learn that if you don't get through an entire lesson it is okay. Rushing a lesson in order to fit it all in can spoil it. Being structured is a strength, but being overstructured is a weakness. I must take time to smell the roses and enjoy those teachable moments.

I feel very lucky to have had the opportunity to work with such a talented group of young people. I have learned from them and they have learned from me—a beautiful exchange. This experience is one I will never forget. Teaching is an incredible art that touches lives and minds on a daily basis—a profession unlike any other!

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Appendix I

Mini-Work Sample—Special Education

TWS Descriptors—Special Education

TWS Component	Availability	Quality of Component
Context description	Missing	Unacceptable.
Rationale	Provided	Very thorough; persuasive though some parts merely restated procedural descriptions. Adequate.
Goals and objectives	Provided	Very complete; aligned with IEP annual goals and assessment activities. Very good.
Instructional steps	Provided	Very thorough—shown for each child. Plans shown in general as well as for individuals. Very good.
Assessment	Provided	Measures, rubrics, and procedures provided—quite thorough. Very good.
Learning gain data	Provided	Individual gains and examples of posttest performances shown. Assessment information matches back to rubrics. Good.
Reflection on data	Provided	Thorough for individuals but nothing shown for group; interpretations for each child are redundant to one another. Approaching adequacy.
Reflection on self	Missing	Unacceptable.
General comments	The original TWS was designed to provide instruction for four boys, all of whom were considered to be mildly disabled. In this mini-TWS, only plans and data analyses are shown for two of the children.	

DISABLED LEARNER WORK SAMPLE

Table of Contents

- Short-term objective and related IEP goals and objectives
- Instructional plans for the group
- Rationale provided for the objectives, instructional approach, sequence of steps, and step plans (one for each sequence of steps)
- Description of data-keeping procedures
- Data on learning gains
- Weekly interpretation of gains in learning
- Pre- and postsamples of pupils' work
- Data use report

A. SHORT-TERM OBJECTIVE

Given instruction in planning and the mechanics of writing, pupils will produce written compositions that demonstrate progressive improvements in overall length of composition (measured by number of syntactically correct sentences) and writing mechanics (measured by the percent correct for capitalization, spelling, and punctuation), when compared to baseline as measured by weekly writing probes with story starter.

B. RELATED IEP GOALS AND OBJECTIVES FOR STUDENT 1

Annual goal: By _____, Student 1 will independently write a paragraph composed of 7-10 complete sentences that are easily read by an adult and are at least 80% accurate for capitalization, punctuation, word usage, and spelling.

Related Short-Term Objectives

1. Spell weekly classroom spelling words (from a list modified to meet his needs), with at least 80% accuracy, based on weekly tests, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
2. Use inventive spelling with at least 80% of words capable of being meaningfully read in independent writing activities, based on writing sample review, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
3. Write complete sentences, in which he identifies the simple subjects and simple verbs, which keep to the subject, as he identifies in his topic sentences, with at least 80% accuracy, based on writing sample review, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
4. Capitalize the first word in each sentence and use proper nouns with 100% accuracy, based on a writing sample review, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
5. Punctuate the ends of sentences with 100% accuracy, based on a writing sample review, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
6. Read his sentences aloud, exhibiting accurate word usage, and correct own errors with teacher assistance, with 100% accuracy, based on a writing sample review, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
7. Edit written exercises using correct capitalization and punctuation, with at least 85% accuracy), based on a writing sample review, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
8. Submit final copies, which are easily read by adults who were not a part of the writing process, with at least 80% accuracy, based on a writing sample review, on three consecutive probes, over a 7- month period.

C. RELATED ANNUAL GOAL FOR STUDENT 2

By ____, Student 2 will write 7-10 sentences about a selected subject that includes complete sentences and that are at least 80% accurate for spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and word usage.

Related Short-Term Objectives

1. Demonstrate active listening during teacher instruction (making eye contact with the teacher, raising his hand, and/or answering questions) as assessed against a checklist where E = exceeds teacher expectation, S = satisfactory, N = needs to improve), on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
2. Make a graphic organizer of the task/writing project he is to complete. Assess using checklist above, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
3. Use his graphic organizer of the task/writing project. Assess using the checklist above, on three consecutive probes, over a 7- month period.
4. Write complete simple sentences in which he can identify the simple subject and verb with 100% accuracy, based on a writing sample review, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
5. Write a topic sentence to express his main idea and eliminate sentences that do not correspond to his main idea with 80% accuracy, based on a writing sample review, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
6. Capitalize only the beginning words in sentences, proper nouns, initials, and appropriate abbreviations, with 100% accuracy, based on a writing sample review, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
7. End sentences with appropriate ending punctuation with 100% accuracy, based on a writing sample review, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
8. Use inventive spelling to predict the spelling of words, but use dictionaries or assistive technology to verify his predictions or correct errors. His final spellings will be at least 60% correct, based on a writing sample review, on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.
9. Produce final copies in standard paragraph form that other people not directly involved in the writing process will verify as being "easily read" (see above checklist code), on three consecutive probes, over a 7-month period.

RATIONALE FOR OBJECTIVES

Check one: __Essential skill   X Common curriculum goal   __District goal

This objective addresses the IEP goal that progress is targeted towards the number of sentences specified in the annual goal. It also addresses the required connection to Oregon benchmark rubrics that will be used to assess pre- and post-test written skills.

RATIONALE FOR INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACH

1. *In what ways does the diagnostic/eligibility information (taken from formal and informal data describing current level of functioning) impact the instructional plan?*
    (1) Skill level
    (2) Level of learning
    (3) Processing problems
    (4) Learning styles

(5) Interests/motivational factors
(6) Management considerations

The group is composed of students at different skill levels. It will be more efficient to track improvement from baseline, as opposed to attainment of individualized criteria of acceptable performance within each step, in order to take into account these different skill levels. Certain individuals within the group will need extra instruction as their diagnosis is more serious and their level of learning is different. Timed writing probes will be used unless student progress appears to slow as a result of the time limit. As progress is made towards increased sentence output, analysis of untimed finished products will be used to track progress. Error analysis of writing probes (timed and untimed) will determine the need for additional instruction of writing skill components. It will be necessary to rearrange the group from time to time in order to address individual needs. The group is composed of males, all of whom have expressed a high interest level in authors such as E. L. Stine and Stephen King. Materials will be used to reflect these interests.

2. *How will I provide review of items previously mastered so the students will retain them?*

The weekly lesson plan incorporates a review of previous materials as
well as a review of new skills at the beginning and end of every week.

3. *How will I promote future generalization when a simple acquisition has been attained (to regular class, home, and community new applications)?*

Students will be provided with writing tools (reminder cards, mnemonic devices) that they can use in the regular classroom to help them use their new writing skills in classroom assignments.

4. *How will I accommodate the pupils' cultural, social, and linguistic backgrounds?*

The challenge for me with this group will be in keeping interest high. The use of mystery, magic, and scary stories should keep these students involved in the writing process.

How will I break the skill into at least 3-5 (possibly more) teachable parts?
Sequence Steps:

1. Introduce the mnemonic P.L.E.A.S.E. for the planning stage of writing. The student will memorize planning steps and be able to independently explain each step in his or her own words: P = pick a topic; L = list thoughts about the topic; E = evaluate thoughts to determine which ones to include in writing; A = activate paragraph with opening sentence; S = supply paragraph with sentences formed from list of thoughts; and, E = evaluate writing—grammar, mechanics, and neatness.
2. (P. L. and E.) Given a topic (P.), the student will write at least five thoughts related to the topic, using words or phrases. Students will evaluate (E.) the

list and decide on at least three to six thoughts (depending on individual goals) to include in their writing.

3. (A. and S.) Given a topic and an evaluated list of thoughts, the student will write an opening sentence, additional sentences, and a concluding sentence using thoughts and notes from his or her list.
4. (E.) Given a topic, an evaluated list of thoughts, an opening sentence, a paragraph body, and a concluding sentence, the student will evaluate his or her written composition for sentence structure, mechanics, and neatness and rewrite with corrections into a final draft.
5. Repeat steps 2 through 4 for each topic chosen. Student should be able to write one correct paragraph per week. Writing probes and finished products will be used to evaluate progressive improvement in writing.
6. Given a writing assignment from the regular classroom teacher, the student will compose the writing assignment, demonstrating the use of the P.L.E.A.S.E mnemonic writing strategy and writing at least the number of sentences specified for their individual goals.

Instructional Plans for Group

Pupils Students #1 & #2 plus #3 (#4: Wed. only)

Step Plan for Sequence Step 1 Content Area Writing

Intermediate objective: Students will memorize planning steps and will be able to independently explain each step in their own words with 100% accuracy

Materials: Student journals, chalk, eraser, prepared flashcards

Preparation: Have 3 topics chosen from story starter materials. Prepare flashcards with PLEASE mnemonic

A. Opening: 5 minutes

Review previous skill or lesson No review

Advanced organizer:
1. Outline needed for improved writing.
2. Learn planning tool.
3. Play game with flash cards.

B. Body of lesson: 20 minutes

Examples

1. Model new skill
Show each flashcard and say planning step.
"The letter 'P' stands for Pick a topic."

2. Try it
Give each person a chance to repeat the steps using the flash cards.

3. Feedback
Ask group members if the step has been explained correctly.

4. Independent practice
Play board game, using flashcards, in order to advance.

5. Check new skill
Have each student say the steps in own words. If not 100% correct give this lesson again until all students in the group are at 100%

C. Closing or transition: 5 minutes

1. Review new skill
Say PLEASE to students again

2. Suggestions and tools for classroom application
Tell students to begin using these planning steps in the regular classroom.

D. Follow-up activity or homework

None

Instructional Plans for Group

Pupils Students #1 + #2 plus #3 (#4: Wed. only)
Step Plan for Sequence Step 2 Content Area Writing
Intermediate objective: Given a topic, students write at least 5 thoughts related to the topic, using words or phrases. Students will evaluate the list for their homework assignment and decide on at least 3.
Materials: Generic game board, homework, journals, pencils, chalkboard, eraser, topics, cards
Preparation: Write topics on cards for board games

A. Opening: 5 minutes

Review previous skill or lesson

Use PLEASE flash cards to review planning strategy.

Do timed probe. (Give topic, talk about it for a moment, then have students write for 3 minutes. When time is up allow students to finish the sentences they are on.)

Advanced organizer:

1. Show what to do.
2. Practice
3. Game

B. Body of lesson: 20 minutes

1. Model new skill

   Use chalkboard to demonstrate listing thoughts.

2. Try it

   Give anothe topic then go round-robin to come up with a list of thoughts.

3. Feedback

   Tell students at this point that all their thoughts are good to list. We will evaluate them later.

4. Independent practice

   Have students take out a piece of paper. Give topic. Students must write 5 thoughts about the topic.

5. Check new skill

   Trade papers. Go over list by counting to see if everyone has 5 thoughts listed that are related to the topic.

Examples

- The best gift I ever received
  1. When?
  2. What for?
  3. Who gave it?
  4. What was it?
  5. Do I still have it?

C. Closing or transition: 5 minutes

1. Review new skill Show how fast this step should be done by demonstrating it again but without talking

2. Suggestions and tools for classroom application

   Encourage students to use this listing technique for reports, journals, letters, etc.

D. Follow up activity or homework

Play game using topic cards. Students must say 5 thoughts about the topic in order to advance on the game board.

Homework: Students are to evaluate the list and choose at least 3 thoughts that will be expanded into a paragraph.

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Instructional Plans for Group

Pupils Students #1 & #2 plus #3 (#4: Wed. only
Step Plan for Sequence Step 3 Content Area Writing
Intermediate objective: Given a topic and an evaluated list of thoughts, students will write an opening sentence. Students will write at least 3 more sentences including a closing sentence.
Materials: Prepared list of thoughts, lined graph paper, pencil
Preparation: None

A. Opening: 5 minutes

Review previous skill or lesson
Review list. Remind students that each thought will become a sentence, one thought per sentence

Advanced organizer:
1. Look at listen. 2. Choose thought. 3. Think of sentence and write it. 4. Look at list. 5. Choose thought... etc.

B. Body of lesson: 20 minutes Examples

1. Model new skill
Demonstrate choosing a thought. Think of a sentence aloud. Write it on graph paper.

2. Try it

3. Feedback
Check students' first sentences for structure and mechanics.

4. Independent practice
Do at least 3 more.

5. Check new skill
Check sentences. Help each other to correct.

C. Closing or transition: 5 minutes

1. Review new skill Choose another thought. Think aloud. Have students think aloud. Comment on sentences spoken aloud.

2. Suggestions and tools for classroom application
Remind students to use planning and writing steps.

D. Follow-up activity or homework
Write a concluding sentence at home.

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Instructional Plans for Group

Pupils Students #1 & #2 plus #3 (#4: Wed. only)

Step Plan for Sequence Step 4 Content Area Writing

Intermediate objective: Students will evaluate their writing for sentence structure, mechanics, and neatness. Will re-write if necessary.

Materials: Draft composition

Preparation: Prepare a messy draft to demonstrate how to evaluate. Prepare cleaned up one too.

A. Opening: 5 minutes

Review previous skill or lesson

One thought, one sentence. Opening sentence, body sentences, closing sentence

Advanced organizer:

1. Neatness check. 2. Structure check. 3. Mechanics check. 4. Neatness check.

B. Body of lesson: 20 minutes Examples

1. Model new skill

Show messy draft. Ask "Is it clean"? Pass it around and check structure of one sentence; fix it; check one word for spelling; fix it.

2. Try it

Have students ask each other how their paper looks.

3. Feedback

Go to each student and get them started on the process.

4. Independent practice

Continue evaluating: Neat? Structure? Mechanics? Neat? (in that order).

5. Check new skill

Check final draft. Rewrite?

C. Closing or transition: 5 minutes

1. Review new skill

Show messy and cleaned up draft

2. Suggestions and tools for classroom application

Same reminders

D. Follow-up activity or homework

Rewrite at home if needed.

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Daily lesson plans
Skill group Writing
Students Students #1, #2, #3, #4
Date 9-30
Lesson time ______
Short term objective Given a story starter, write opening sentence with 100% accuracy.

Lesson	Student #1	Student #2	Student #3	Student #4	Comments
Opening	Timed writing. Write key words on the board	〃	〃	Timed writing.	
Advanced Organizer	Use graphic organizer	〃	〃	Use 1, 2, 3 organizer	
Model New Skill	Activating a paragraph with an opening sentence. Write keywords on the board	→	→	Ask #4 to consider writing a longer sentence with a comma.	
Feedback	Call attention to spelling	→	→	Call attention to grammar and punctuation.	
Independent Practice	Worksheet	→	→	→	
Check New Skill	Check spelling	→	→	Correct sentence structure and punctuation	
Review New Skill	Activating a paragraph with an opening sentence	→	→	→	
Homework	Cut out or copy an opening sentence or headline from a newspaper, magazine, or comic book.	→	→	→	

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Daily lesson plans

Skill group Writing

Students Students #1, #2, #3

Date 10-8

Lesson time 2:25-2:55 Short term objective Given a topic story starter, write an opening sentence, using correct sentense structure, spelling, and punctuation with 90% accuracy over 3 consecutive probes.

Lesson	Student #1	Student #2	Student #3	Student #4	Comments
Opening	Today we are going to work on looking good	→	→	Switched to Wednesdays only	
Advanced Organizer	1. Spacing 2. Spelling 3. Open sentence	→	→		
Model New Skill	Write a sentence using obvious spacing between words	→	→		
Feedback	Build sentences from spelling list	→	→		
Independent Practice	let students rearrange letters + write sentences	→	→		
Check New Skill	Check sentences	→	→		
Review New Skill	Spacing	→	→		
Homework	None	→	→		

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Daily lesson plans Skill group Writing

Students Students #1, #2, #3 Date 10-14

Lesson time 2:25-2:55 Short term objective Given a story starter, write an opening sentence accurately. (CAP: 90% on two consecutive worksheets.)

Lesson	Student #1	Student #2	Student #3	Student #4	Comments
Opening	We are going continue working on skills that make our writing look better.	→	→		
Advanced Organizer	1. Review 2. New skill 3. Worksheet 4. Spelling game	→	→		
Model New Skill	5. Review Capitals Punctuation (include " ; ")	→	→		
Feedback	Each person writes a sentence with out a capital or period. Switch	→	→		
Independent Practice	Papers & correct. Worksheet. Read together	→	→		
Check New Skill	Do alone. Check together	→	→		
Review New Skill	Capitals and punctuation	→	→		
Homework	Write a sloppy sentence. Then write it again correctly	→	→		

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DESCRIPTION OF DATA-KEEPING PROCEDURES

A. What data will be collected?

Collection of pre- and postassessment data will be based on the Oregon Common Curriculum goals using the Writing Benchmarks 1 and 2 as the framework for the writing sample scoring rubric. Additional rubric components have been added in order to incorporate IEP objectives. The benchmarks used (1 and 2) will depend on the skill level of the individual student. Demonstration of progress toward IEP objectives will be tracked via writing probes and finished products. Fluency will be graphed based on number of syntactically correct sentences. Writing mechanics will be tracked based on percent of words spelled correctly, percent of correct use of capitalization, and percent of correct use of punctuation.

B. How will it be displayed?

Throughout the term, data will be graphed using a standard line graph (Graph 1: Y = Number of syntactically correct sentences; X = School weeks. Graph 2: Y = Percent of correct writing skill components for spelling, capitalization, and punctuation; X = School weeks). Pre- and post-analysis data will be included in the Data Use Reports.

C. Where in the lesson will data be collected?

_X_ Opening ___Independent practice check ___Homework

Initially, students will participate in a 3-minute writing exercise at least once per week during the opening segment of the lesson. As writing performance improves, progress toward the goal will be tracked via analysis of the finished writing product.

D. How often will data be collected?

___Daily ___Every other day _X_ Weekly ___Other: _________

Scoring Rubric

Benchmark 1 (Grade 3)

Conveys clear main ideas and supporting details appropriate to audience and purpose:

5 = Main idea is focused and interesting and includes at least 5-7 supporting details.
4 = Main idea is clearly evident and includes at least 2-4 supporting details.
3 = Main idea is clearly evident and includes at least 2-3 related details.
2 = Main idea is discernible and includes at least one related detail.
1 = Main idea is discernible but lacks any supporting or related details.
0 = Main idea is not discernible and supporting or related details are absent.

Demonstrated organization by developing a clear opening, body, and conclusion.

5 = There is a clear opening, supporting body, and supporting conclusions.
4 = There is a clear opening, supporting body, and related conclusion.

3 = There is a clear opening and supported body, but lacks a related or supporting conclusion.
2 = There is a clear opening and related body, but lacks detail and conclusion.
1 = There is a discernible beginning but lacks related or supporting body and conclusion.
0 = Structure is not discernible.

Uses correct writing conventions: spelling (S), grammar (G), punctuation (P), and capitalization (C).
5 = 100% evident
4 = 80-99% evident
3 = 70-79% evident
2 = 60-69% evident
1 = 50-59% evident
0 = less than 50% evident

Benchmark 2 (Grade 5)
Conveys clear, focused main ideas and supporting details appropriate to audience and purpose.
5 = Main idea is clearly focused and includes at least 7-10 directly supportive and focused details.
4 = Main idea is clearly focused and includes at least 5-7 supporting details.
3 = Main idea is somewhat focused and includes at least 4-5 supporting details.
2 = Main idea is readily discernible and includes at least 3-4 supporting details.
1 = Main idea is readily discernible but related details are not supportive or purposeful.
0 = Main idea is not easily discernible and related details are not supportive or purposeful.

Demonstrates organization by developing a clear beginning, middle, and end, and by providing logical sequences and paragraphing.
5 = There is a clear opening, supporting body, and supporting conclusion with logical sequence and smooth transitions.
4 = There is a clear opening, supporting body, and supporting conclusion with logical sequences but lacks smooth transitions.
3 = There is a clear opening, supporting body, and supporting conclusion, but lacks logical sequencing and smooth transitions.
2 = There is a clear opening and supporting body, but includes an illogical though related conclusion.
1 = There is a clear opening and supporting body but one that lacks logical sequencing, and includes an illogical though related conclusion.
0 = Clear structure as well as logical sequencing is not readily discernible.

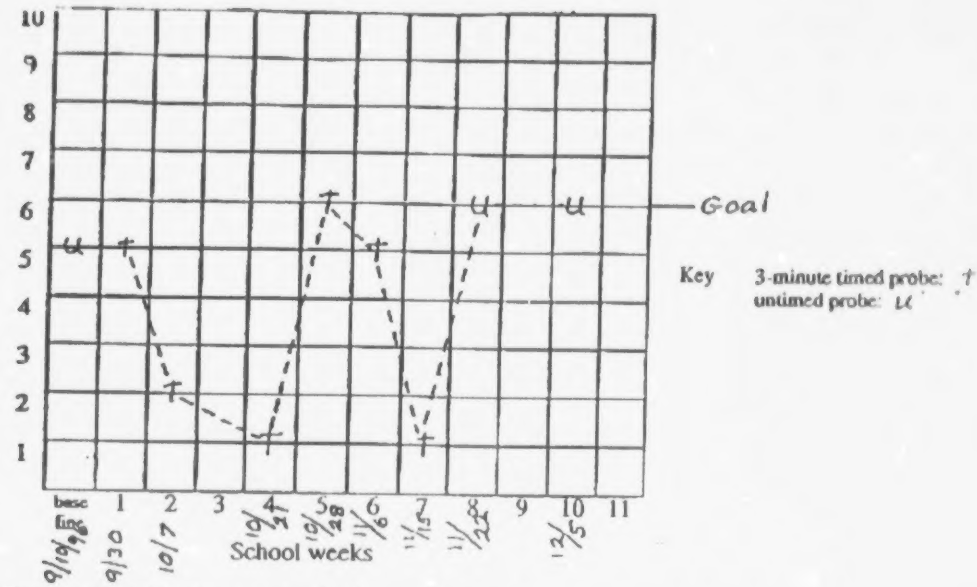
Write sentences that flow and vary in length.
5 = Sentences flow well and sentence length varies by at least 6 words.

4 = At least three quarters of the sentences flow well, and sentence length varies by at least 5 words.
3 = At least two thirds of the sentences flow easily, and sentence length varies by at least 5 words.
2 = At least half of the sentences flow easily, and sentence length varies by at least 4 words.
1 = Sentences do not vary by more than 3-4 words in length.
0 = Sentences do not vary by more than 2-3 words in length.

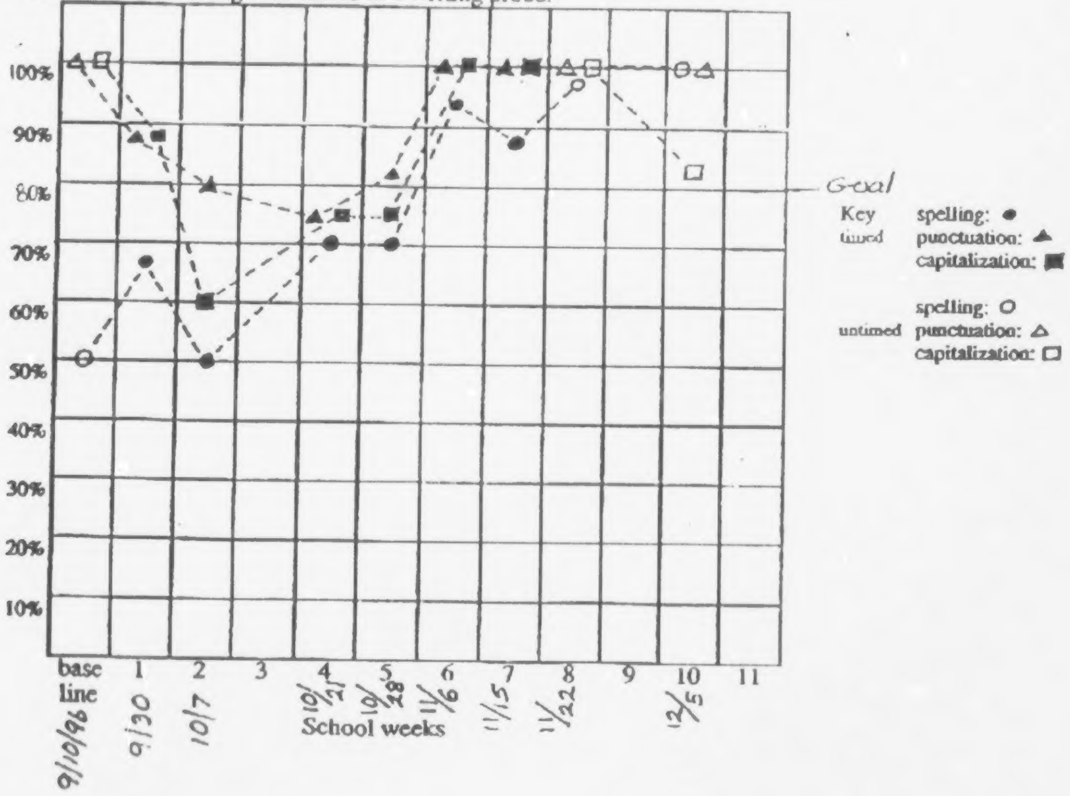
Uses correct spelling (S), grammar (G), punctuation (P), capitalization (C), and paragraphing (PG).
5 = 100% evident
4 = 80-99% evident
3 = 70-79% evident
2 = 60-69% evident
1 = 50-59% evident
0 = less than 50% evident

Related = Refers to "within the ballpark" but not necessarily in support of the main idea.
Supporting = Refers to having direct and supporting relationship with the main idea.
Focused = Refers to having a direct and focused, or purposeful relationship, with one clearly defined focused idea.

Fluency and Structure Measures (Times and untimed writing probe):
Number of syntactically correct sentences
Percent of words spelled correctly
Percent of correct punctuation
Percent of correct capitalization



Percent correct writing mechanics in a writing probe.



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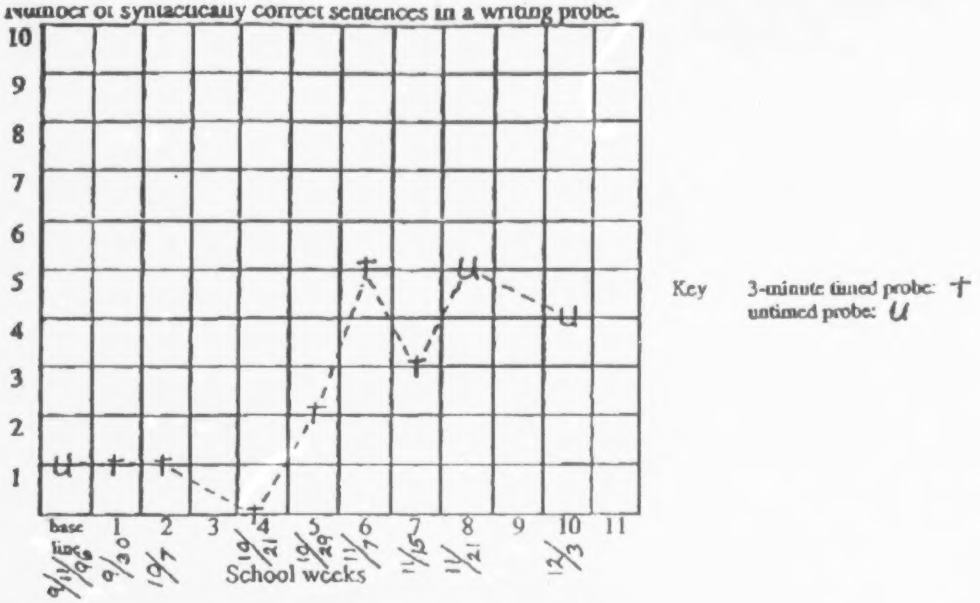
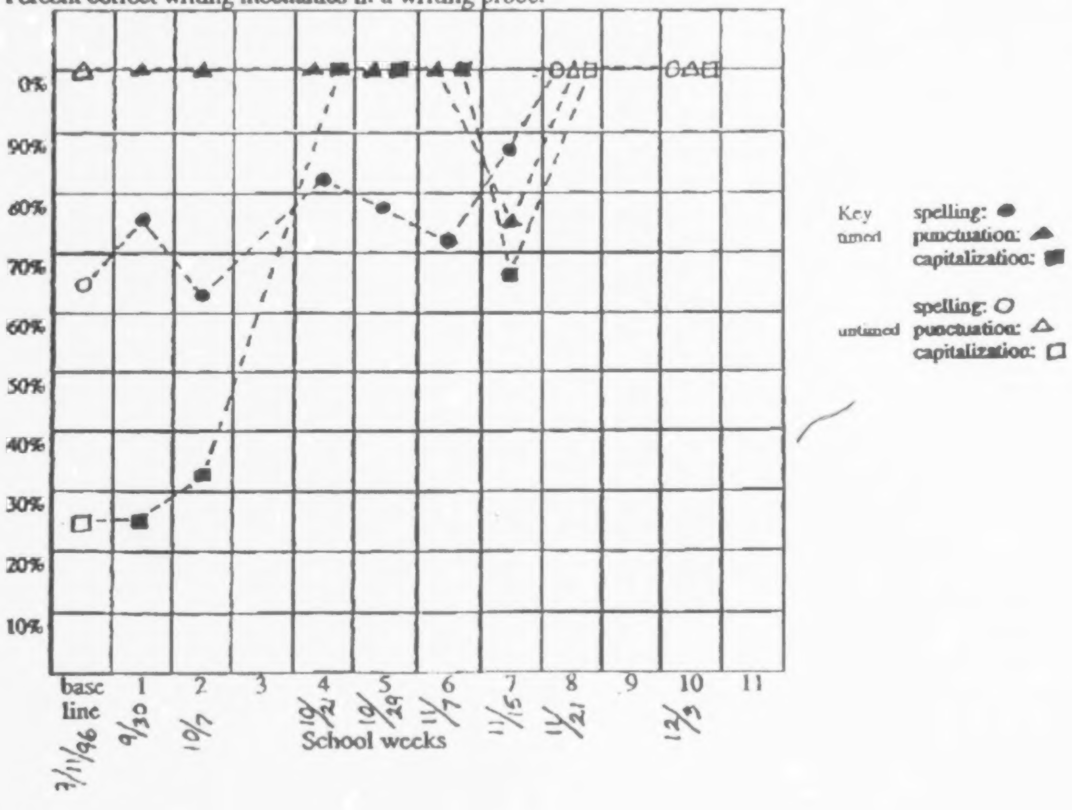
Number of syntactically correct sentences in a writing probe.



Percent correct writing mechanics in a writing probe.



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Weekly Interpretation of Gains in Learning

Pupil: Student 1

Decision Rules

Advancement: Student 1 will advance to step 6 when he produces six correct sentences and 80% or better mechanics on two consecutive probes; i.e., CAP.

Alteration: The program will be modified when Student 1 does not achieve CAP within two probes.

Date	Step	Interpretation of Data	Instructional Decision
9-30	1	Spelling needs work.	Spend more time on listing stage of writing by providing correct spelling of common words being misspelled. Have group play spelling games.
10-8	4	Mechanics (punctuation and capitalization) poor.	Provide homework worksheet to correct these errors.
10-21	4	Neatness is poor.	Switch Student 1 to lined graph paper to improve letter formation and spacing.
11-15	3	Increase in number of sentences is flat.	Switch Student 1 to untimed writing probe.
11-22	4	CAP achieved.	Needs to perform at this level on next probe before advancing to step 6.
12-5	4	CAP achieved	Advance to step 6.

Pre-instruction Student # 1

Wierd

Plant Wrod. They are wrod. The plant gas fas. Thex area / inece tatt. They spk wrod. The plant is the size of the sun.

Correct sentences	5/6
Spelling	50%
Punctuation	100%
Capitalization	100%

Grade 3 benchmark rubric

Main idea & supporting detail - 4

Opening, body, closing - 2

Spelling - 1

Grammar - 4

Punctuation - 5

Capitalization - 5

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Untimed
Post-instruction

Student #1

Thanksgiving Day

☆ Thanksgiving we had a feast. I had a Turkey. At my home I had people over. The names of the people in my home are mom, dad, Shane, Justin and Ryan. My Grandparents stayed for a few days. They left on Sunday.

6/6 6# Sentences
6# Correct
100% 42# Words
42# Correct
100% 9# Punctuation
9# Correct
83% 12# Capitals — mom & dad → Mom & Dad
10# Correct

Grade 3 Scoring rubric
Main idea + supporting detail - 5
Opening, body, closing - 5
Spelling - 5
Grammar - 4
Punctuation 5
Capitalization 4

☆ Should be Thanksgiving Day

Weekly Interpretation of Gains in Learning

Pupil: Student 2

Decision Rules

Advancement: Student #2 will advance to step 6 when he produces three correct sentences and 80% or better mechanics on two consecutive probes; i.e., CAP.

Alteration: The program will be modified when Student 2 does not achieve CAP within two sessions.

Date	Step	Interpretation of Data	Instructional Decision
9-30	3	Produces run-on sentences or is just forgetting periods. Capitalization is poor.	Bring Student 2 in for one-on-one instruction in building a sentence of varying length and putting periods at the end of sentences and capitals at the beginning.
10-7	4	Paragraph does not line up on the left line of paper. Spelling is weak.	Switch Student 2 to lined graph paper. Spend more time on listing thoughts by providing correct spelling of commonly misspelled words. Play spelling games.
11-15	3	Increase in number of sentences is flat and mechanics are still weak. Timed probe may be limiting further progress toward goal.	Switch Student #2 to untimed probe.
11-21	4	CAP achieved.	Needs to perform at this level on next probe before advancing to step 6.
12-3	4	CAP achieved.	Advance to step 6.

Student #2
Untimed
Pre-instruction

Space brain
SPacebriahe

asteroid
a alive Astroyd that

is Speeding dawn the
Galaxie
GeLikce Thin Sudenly
he sees a big Green
Goowy PLanit mmmm
I'll Land here. be descover
burihs and Levehs. huu (uhh)
all posh This won ???
all the sudin I here Strang
Find OF music going on.
I ran home totell evry bode.

Correct sentences	1/4
Spelling	65%
punctuation	100%
capitalization	25%

Grade 3 rubric

Main idea & supporting details	3
Opening, body, closing	1
Spelling	2
Grammar	0
Punctuation	5
Capitalization	0

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untimied
post-instruction

Student #2

My soccer teams name is Lighting. We lost all of our games. I brought hot chocolate and Rice Crispies treats. We had a fun season.

4/4 — 4 # sentences
4# correct

100% — 25# Words
25# correct

100% — 4# Punctuation
4# Correct

100% — 7# Capitals
7# Correct

Grade 3 scoring rubric
Main idea & supporting details — 4
Opening, body, closing — 5
Spelling — 5
Grammar — 5
Punctuation — 5
Capitalization — 5

DATA USE REPORT

1.0 Identifying Data

1.1 Pupil's first name: Student 1
1.2 Date of report: 12-6-__
1.3 Pupil's age: 9 years, 6 months
1.4 Grade 4
1.5 School: ___ Elementary
1.6 Pupil's teacher: Mrs. _____
1.7 TWS author: _____ ______
1.8 College supervisor: Dr. ________

2.0 Instructional Program

2.1 Behavioral objective

Given instruction in planning and mechanics of writing, the student will produce written compositions that demonstrate progressive improvements in overall length of composition (measured by number of syntactically correct sentences) and writing mechanics (measured by percent of correct capitalization, spelling, and punctuation) when compared to baseline as measured by weekly writing probes with a story starter.

2.2 Summary of instructional approach

Step 1: The writing strategy mnemonic P.L.E.A.S.E. was introduced. Each letter stands for a writing step. Student memorized steps of P.L.E.A.S.E. writing strategy and explained each step in his own words at the beginning of each writing session. Each student determined a personal writing goal during individual conferences. This goal then became the criterion for acceptable performance (CAP) for that student.

Step 2: Students were given a topic or were allowed to choose one of their own. On a separate sheet of paper, students listed thoughts and words with which they needed spelling help. The list was evaluated and notes or sentences were added or deleted.

Step 3: Using the list, students wrote an opening sentence, a body, and a closing sentence, encompassing one thought chosen from their list into each sentence.

Step 4: If the writing session was untimed, students evaluated their writing probe and made necessary corrections.

Step 5: These steps were repeated throughout the sessions. One finished product per week was obtained (except when sessions were canceled during breaks or when special class projects were in session). Written products were analyzed for errors and individualized instruction was planned to remediate these errors.

Step 6: Students meeting their goals progressed to step 6. In this step students were to bring writing assignments from the regular classroom for additional instruction.

2.3 Summary of data trends and alterations

Number of correct sentences produced increased from a low of 1 to a consistent high of 6. Spelling improved from a low of 50% to a consistent high of 98-100%. Punctuation improved from a low of 75% to a consistent high of 100%. Capitalization improved from a low of 60% to a consistent high of 83-100%. Student 1 was encouraged to spend more time in the planning stage listing his thoughts and making notes. Homework was given to provide practice in writing mechanics. Student 1 switched to lined graph paper to improve neatness. Finally, Student 1 was switched to untimed writing probes in place of timed probes to help stabilize and increase sentence output.

2.4 Results of instruction

Pre- and postinstruction writing samples were obtained. Analysis was completed using the writing scoring rubric for Benchmark 1 for grade 3. Results indicated improvement to the top of the benchmark, particularly in paragraph organization and in spelling.

Component	Pretest sample score	Posttest sample score
Main ideas and supporting details	4	5
Opening, body, and conclusion	2	5
Spelling	1	4
Grammar	4	4
Punctuation	5	5
Capitalization	5	4

3.0 Recommendations

3.1 For the classroom teachers

Student 1 benefits from the use of a consistent writing strategy. The P.L.E.A.S.E. strategy can be used for most writing purposes and encompasses both the beginning and ending phases of the writing process. Student 1 also improved the overall appearance of his product by using lined graph paper. This paper helps the student use appropriate spacing and improves spelling when each square contains one letter. If classroom performance begins to suffer, have Student 1 show his planning work as well as the finished product. Use graph paper when neatness becomes an issue.

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3.2 For the learning resource center teacher

Student 1 has met his goal but not his IEP goal. He should now bring classroom writing assignments to the LRC for additional instruction. Use the P.L.E.A.S.E. strategy for these assignments. Switch to graph paper if neatness becomes an issue.

3.3 For the parent

Student 1 has demonstrated excellent study skills in the Learning Resource Center. He arrived on time, he worked hard, his writing skills improved, and he was a pleasure to have in class. Continue to encourage writing at home. Show examples of good writing in books you have at home and within cards and letters you write or receive.

DATA USE REPORT

1.0 Identifying Data

1.1	Pupil's first name	Student #2
1.2	Date of report	12-6
1.3	Pupil's age	9 years 7 months
1.4	Grade	4
1.5	School	______ Elementary
1.6	Pupil's teacher	Mrs. ______
1.7	TWS author	______ ______
1.8	College supervisor	Dr. _______

2.0 Instructional Program

2.1 Behavioral objectives

Given instruction in planning and mechanics of writing, students will produce written compositions that demonstrate progressive improvements in overall length of composition (measured by number of syntactically correct sentences) and writing mechanics (measured by percent correct capitalization, spelling, and punctuation) when compared to baseline as measured by weekly writing probes with a story starter.

2.2 Summary of instructional approach

Step 1: The writing strategy mnemonic P.L.E.A.S.E. was introduced. Each letter stands for a writing step. Student memorized steps of P.L.E.A.S.E. writing strategy and explained each step in his own words at the beginning of each writing session. Each student determined a personal writing goal during individual conferences. This goal then became the criterion for acceptable performance (CAP) for that student.

Step 2: Students were given a topic or were allowed to choose one of their own. On a separate sheet of paper, students listed thoughts and words with which they need spelling help. The list was evaluated and notes or sentences were added or deleted.

Step 3: Using the list, students wrote an opening sentence, a body, and a closing sentence, encompassing one thought chosen from their list into each sentence.

Step 4: If the writing session was untimed, students evaluated their writing probe and made necessary corrections.

Step 5: These steps were repeated throughout the sessions. One finished product per week was obtained (except when sessions were canceled during breaks or when special class projects were in session). Written products were analyzed for errors and individualized instruction was planned to remediate these errors.

Step 6: Students meeting their goals progressed to step 6. In this step students were to bring writing assignments from the regular classroom for additional instruction.

2.3 Summary of data trends and alterations

Number of correct sentences produced increased from a low of 1 to a consistent high of 5. Spelling improved from a low of 63% to a consistent high of 100%. Punctuation remained consistently high. Capitalization improved from a low of 25% to a consistent high of 100%. Additional one-to-one instruction was provided in all areas of writing. Student 2 switched to lined graph paper to improve neatness. As writing improved, untimed writing probes were used in order to allow for more sentences to be produced.

2.4 Results of instruction

Pre- and postinstruction writing samples were obtained. Analysis was completed using the writing scoring rubric for Benchmark 1 for Grade 3. Results indicated improvement in all areas to the top of the benchmark.

Component	Pretest sample score	Posttest sample score
Main ideas and supporting details	3	4
Opening, body, and conclusion	1	5
Spelling	2	5
Grammar	0	5
Punctuation	5	5
Capitalization	0	4

3.0 Recommendations

3.1 For the classroom teachers

Student 2 benefits from the use of a consistent writing strategy. The P.L.E.A.S.E. strategy can be used for most writing purposes and encompasses both the beginning and ending phases of the writing process. Student #1 also improved the overall appearance of his product by using lined graph paper. This paper helps the student use appropriate spacing and improves spelling when each square contains one letter. If classroom performance begins to suffer, have Student 1 show his planning work as well as the finished product. Use graph paper when neatness becomes an issue.

3.2 For the learning resource center teacher

Student #1 has met his goal but not his IEP goal. He should now bring classroom writing assignments to the LRC for additional instruction. Use the P.L.E.A.S.E. strategy for these assignments. Switch to graph paper if neatness becomes an issue.

3.3 For the parent

Student 1 has demonstrated excellent study skills in the Learning Resource Center. Although he sometimes forgot when he was to come to class, he worked hard, his writing skills improved, and he was a pleasure to have in class. Continue to encourage writing at home. Show examples of good writing in books you have at home and within cards and letters you write or receive.

Appendix J

Western Oregon University–
A Guide to Mentoring Student Teachers

Desired Characteristics of Mentor Teachers

The College of Education at Western Oregon University is committed to providing Western student teachers with the highest quality field experiences. Toward that end, we seek mentor teachers who have the following characteristics:

- Are experienced educators. They must have at least 3 years of teaching in the endorsement or authorization area the Western teacher candidate is pursuing.
- Have completed course work in supervision and/or have exemplary supervision skills, are progressive in their supervision of students, and model teaching as a profession.
- Are viewed by others as leaders in education.
- View mentoring a student teacher as an opportunity for their own continued growth.
- Are knowledgeable and put into practice current and effective curricular and instructional techniques, and incorporate technology, teamwork, inclusion, integrated curriculum, cooperative learning, authentic assessment, and other promising approaches to teaching and learning.
- Clearly understand the purpose and content of teacher work sampling.
- Will mentor the student in the classroom and in the larger community.
- Are willing to let the student take reasonable risks in the student teaching experience and will turn over the class to the student teacher at an appropriate time.
- Will provide frequent oral and written feedback in a variety of teaching or professional situations.

Roles and Responsibilities of Mentor Teachers

In addition to being an exemplary role model, the mentor teacher has the responsibility for guiding the Western teacher into full-time responsibility in the classroom. Toward that end, it is the responsibility of the mentor teacher to do the following:

1. Provide a climate that allows the Western teacher to meet the proficiencies required for student teaching by supporting multiple approaches and creative efforts.
2. Encourage many and varied opportunities for learning and relevant experiences including observation, small-group and total-group teaching, parent

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conferences, and participation in professional meetings and extracurricular activities.

3. Welcome discussion (but not necessarily implementation) of physical changes in the classroom organization that would fit the student teacher's style. Sometimes it is good experience to let the student try something you think might not work. We want Western teachers to learn from experience; it is far better to do this during student teaching when they are able to reflect and problem solve supported by a mentor teacher and university supervisor.
4. Help the Western teacher prepare by
   - Assisting in the selection of topics, lesson plans, and learning activities that are appropriate for the grade and discipline areas
   - Guiding the selection and use of appropriate assessment procedures
   - Reviewing the lesson plans before they are taught
   - Identifying an appropriate block of time in which the Western teacher will assume full responsibility for the classroom
5. Assist the Western teacher in improving teaching and management strategies by observing lessons and providing constructive feedback on a frequent and continuing basis.
6. Confer with the Western teacher after observations by
   - Reviewing the results of the observations, discussing strengths and weaknesses, and helping set goals for improvement
   - Assisting in interpreting learning gains from assessment data
7. Supply the Western teacher with your school policy handbook and provide access to information regarding special needs students (e.g., Individual Education Plans, TAG identification, nonconfidential behavior files).
8. Introduce the Western teacher to the "life of the school" and to essential personnel.
9. Confer with the Western teacher and the university supervisor throughout the term. If you begin to have concerns, it is important to communicate early about any issues. Document the Western student teacher's growth with the assistance of the university supervisor by recording observations and other required evaluations on the assessment forms:
   - The Interim Notification form should be completed during a three-way conference during the 5th week of the experience so concerns can be identified early. The university supervisor will assist with problem solving in areas of concern.
   - If serious concerns exist, another faculty member or the Director of Field Services may be brought in to assist you with decisions that need to be made immediately about the Western teacher.
10. Follow up the field experience as you see fit. You will probably be asked to write a letter of recommendation. Because you have had more opportunities than anyone else to observe the Western teacher, this letter will be one of the student's most meaningful recommendations. The Western teacher will provide you with the form appropriate for this process.

Roles and Responsibilities of Administrators and Coordinators

Western Oregon University is actively involved in Oregon's school reform movement and is committed to forming professional partnerships with Oregon schools that model key elements of the 21st Century Schools Act. Toward that end, we request help from the school administrator to the following:

1. Select mentor teachers based on documented evidence of success in the standards-based reform movement in Oregon.
2. Select mentor teachers who are leaders in the field with CIM, CAM, and authentic assessment.
3. Provide information for student teachers on the rules and culture of the school.
4. Explain the legal issues for student teachers in public schools.
5. Provide the time for mentor teachers to be trained in various methods of supervision and become, yourself, an active participant in these sessions.
6. Provide student teachers with opportunities to experience public school education outside the classroom walls via assignments in hall duty, lunch duty, or extracurricular activities, all under the guidance of a mentor teacher.
7. Provide student teachers with the opportunity to attend parent conferences, school board meetings, site council meetings, student council meetings, and other committee meetings that are part of the school or community culture.
8. Provide student teachers with an exit interview that helps prepare them for actual job interviews.
9. Assume responsibilities for scheduling all four terms of the program.
10. Be well versed on Western's program. A training session will be conducted for you by our faculty.

Roles and Responsibilities of Western Student Teachers

Western teachers should be entering the student teaching experience well prepared to plan to carry out instruction in your classroom, to orchestrate the overall management of the classroom, to handle daily responsibilities in a professional manner, and to contribute to the quality of your classroom.

Their responsibilities include, but are not limited to, the following:

1. Becoming familiar with and adhering to the regulations and philosophy of your school or Education Service District.
2. Following the school calendar and the schedule of the regular faculty day.
3. Being prompt, courteous, and dependable, as well as demonstrating a commitment to the entire student teaching experience.
4. Reporting any reason for absence to the school and university supervisor.
5. Being neat, clean, and appropriately dressed.
6. Developing lesson plans that include two work samples of 2 to 5 weeks' duration (which are part of the school's regular curriculum) as well as plans for other areas of instruction.

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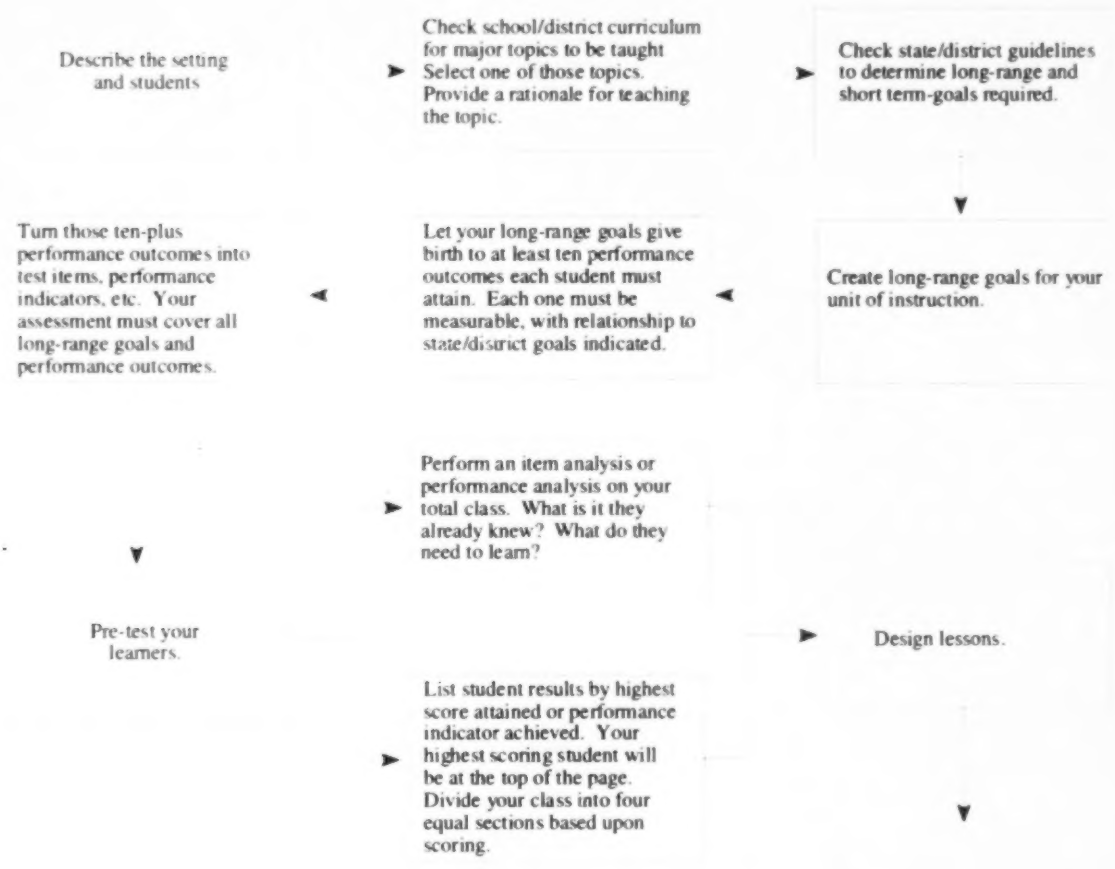
7. Assessing pupils' performance and reporting that performance to others when appropriate.
8. Analyzing the pupils' assessment data to make professional decisions about instruction.
9. Assuming full responsibility for teaching the period of time required by the program.
10. Participating in seminars arranged by the university faculty.

Appendix K

Walking Through Work Sample Development and Implementation



Describe the setting and students

Check school/district curriculum for major topics to be taught Select one of those topics. Provide a rationale for teaching the topic.

Check state/district guidelines to determine long-range and short term-goals required.

Create long-range goals for your unit of instruction.

Let your long-range goals give birth to at least ten performance outcomes each student must attain. Each one must be measurable, with relationship to state/district goals indicated.

Turn those ten-plus performance outcomes into test items, performance indicators, etc. Your assessment must cover all long-range goals and performance outcomes.

Pre-test your learners.

Perform an item analysis or performance analysis on your total class. What is it they already knew? What do they need to learn?

List student results by highest score attained or performance indicator achieved. Your highest scoring student will be at the top of the page. Divide your class into four equal sections based upon scoring.

Design lessons.

Taking into account the performance of your students, design ten-plus lessons that teach directly to your long-range goals and performance outcomes. If your students demonstrated they already know (or could perform) one of your goals or outcomes, then eliminate that one in favor of a new outcome or goal. Quickly test to see their competence on the new outcome or goal before designing instruction.

►

Teach all lessons to students.

►

Post-test all learners. You should create an alternate form test that measaures your student's ability to reach desired goals and outcomes. Keep a diary of each day's events.

◄

Perform a second item analysis on your total class. Where were they successful? Where did they fail?

◄

Post student results on your existing quartile or cluster sheet. Determine the percentage or level of achievement
1) each student attained,
2) each quartile group attained,
3) the total class attained.

Graph the results of each quarter of the class comparing their pre- and post-test results.

◄

Reflecting and Revising

▼

Review your diary, your item analyses, your final assessment results, and the performance of each of your quartile groups. What do the data suggest? What went right? What went wrong in teaching of unit? What did your students achieve? What did they not obtain? How can you help these students attain outcomes they did not achieve?

▼

How would you use these results in future planning and implementation of this unit? What would you change next time?

Appendix L

Guidelines for Submitting Your Work Sample

Your work sample should be submitted in a ring binder with the following sections:

- Cover page
- Title page
- Table of contents
- Description of setting and students

SECTION I

- State/district goals/outcomes related to unit
- Your long-range goals for the unit
- Your performance outcomes for the unit
- An explanation of your preassessment procedure with all assessment materials
- Your original item or assessment analysis

SECTION II

- Lesson plans
- Lesson outcome(s)
- Lesson procedures
- Required materials
- Diary of lesson events

SECTION III

- Your second item or assessment analysis
- Class quartile sheet
- Pre- and posttest results graphed
- An explanation of your posttest assessment procedure with all assessment materials

SECTION IV

- A discussion of quartile/cluster results
- Reflective essay
- Use of results in future planning

SECTION V—APPENDIXES

- Examples of student work
- Reference list or bibliography

Appendix M

Guidelines for Work Samples

TABLE OF CONTENTS

The work sample should be divided into each of the sections below, with some method of division to assist the reader.

DESCRIPTION OF SETTING

Include information about the class, school, community, and the diversity represented and values held with a high degree of specificity. School climate should be addressed as well as the school mission statement. Average class size for the course(s) involved should be described.

RATIONALE/RELATIONSHIP TO STANDARDS

State a rationale for teaching the unit. In addition, address how the unit, goals, and objectives are related to the school mission statement, planned course outline, CIM/CAM performances, content standards, and specific district goals, as well as benchmark levels.

UNIT GOALS/LESSON OUTCOMES

Long-range unit goals in the cognitive, affective, and/or psychomotor domains must be included. A minimum of one lesson outcome for each lesson taught must be written. Some lessons may have more than one lesson outcome, and one lesson outcome may take more than 1 day to achieve. Each goal/outcome is written in terms of and should address (a) the student, (b) the condition, (c) the behavior to be witnessed, and (d) the criteria by which the student's performance is to be measured. Lesson outcomes must relate directly to unit goals and they should be organized so as to reach unit goals.

TEACHING PLANS/MATERIALS

A minimum of 10 lessons are to be included that include a variety of instructional strategies (at least four). These approaches should be labeled (e.g., lecture/discussion, cooperative learning, etc.) Adaptations for special-needs students are to be included with each lesson. Reinforcements for visual or kinesetic learners should be described or illustrated. Lessons should be described in a sequence with enough detail that any teacher could teach the lesson. Lessons should follow a logical sequence with each lesson reinforcing or adding information to a prior lesson leading to a culminating activity at the end of the unit. At the bottom of each lesson plan, a space for daily reflections upon the lesson should be included. This section may include changes for future implementation or commendation for successful practices. Lessons must be original in nature rather than commercially designed. Creativity should be evident in the lessons designed. Materials should be described within the lesson plan. Also include a master list of all materials for the unit (following the ten lessons or in the appendices). Many have found it useful to include a calendar of unit activities in this section as well.

PRE- AND POSTTEST INSTRUMENTS

Tests (with answers provided for the reader) need to assess the full range of cognitive/performance abilities related to the unit. When the curriculum allows, the creation of alternate form tests is advised. Both tests will assess student' ability as related to the goals and outcomes, but they will appear different in format. At least one test item should require students to respond in essay format, and the writer needs to include a scoring guide or rubric for grading responses. Tests should be designed to assess students' knowledge/skill in relation to long-range goals and lesson outcomes. Tests and quartile (clusters) reports should appear together in the next section described.

PRE- AND POSTTEST ANALYSIS

In this section, the reader should find copies of pre- and posttests and quartile reports. In addition, an item analysis of posttest questions and a reflection upon why some items resulted in specific scores (or groups of scores) should be included. State which objectives and outcomes were met. Determine which test items should be revised or omitted in the future. The notion here is to respond to specific items in a certain way because they were too complex, contained a typographical error, confused the student, or tested what they already knew. Was it the question? Was it the teaching? Did the item test information redundant to the student? These are the questions the writer should address.

An additional portion of this section should be devoted to outside evaluation of the teacher's performance. Included should be one written report from an observer who watched one of the lessons contained in the unit (a wonderful way to get one required observation out of the way). This could also be on video and it could be an addition to the writer's portfolio. Another staff member, trained outside observer, or administrator may perform this activity. In addition, a survey of students as to their satisfaction with the unit of instruction should be analyzed, with suggestions for improvement provided by the pupils discussed by the writer. A copy of the survey designed for the pupils use should be included in this section.

EVALUATIVE/REFLECTIVE ESSAY

What did those reflections at the bottom of each lesson plan tell the writer? Following the teaching and testing of the students, reflect upon how to improve several of the lessons. Lessons should be judged by how well the students responded during class time and whether the students correctly completed the test items. An evaluation of the use of media and alternative models of instruction should appear in this section as well as consideration of individual student success (or lack of it) and suggested alternative approaches. Identify their errors and point out their successful practices. What situations helped or influenced the unit/assessment (e.g., snow days, fire drills)? What did you learn about teaching, learning, and yourself? Based upon posttest scores, what do you suggest next for the students?

APPENDIXES/REFERENCES

Include samples of student work (either one student or a representation from several students). Copies of transparencies may be included here or they may be attached to lesson plans. All materials used (if they are commercially published) need to be cited. Additional items you might wish to place in this section could include a list of videos, a bibliography of books that students may read to support the unit, a list of speakers, handouts, or worksheets.

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Appendix N

Activities: Writing Goals and Objectives

Objectives should contain four basic elements:

1. A reference to the student or students.
2. A reference to the learning activity in which the student will participate.
3. A reference to what the student will be able to do following the learning activity.
4. The criterion by which you will measure whether the student can perform the task.

Therefore:

> The student (a) after receiving a lesson on the meaning of 10 vocabulary words (b) will be able to read each word and provide an appropriate meaning (c) to 8 out of 10 words (d).

Or:

> The student, after experiencing a walk around a shopping mall, will be able to write a descriptive paragraph that uses at least 12 adjectives.

Try one.

Now write a humorous one.

Now, using either objective, how would you assess to see if your student(s) performed up to your expectations?

Appendix O

The Interpretive Essay

The interpretive essay is just that—your perceptions of what happened during the teaching of your unit. A daily diary of happenings will increase your knowledge of these perceptions. The essay will also include your analysis of why some students learned more than others, or what outside influences had an impact on your teaching. More than anything, your interpretations become a basis for changing the unit or lessons in the future.

ACTIVITIES

Break into small discussion groups. Read item 1 and spend 10 minutes discussing why some students succeed and some do not.

1. Look at your student groupings.

Discuss what specific students, or group of students, made the greatest gains. Why do you believe they made these gains? What types of behaviors did they exhibit during the teaching of the unit? Was there a motivational factor at work? Peer pressure?

Which students made no gains at all? Were they frequently absent during the teaching of the unit? Did familial concerns overwhelm them? Were assignments completed? Are these students identified as having learning disabilities? Did you modify for those disabilities?

Which students, or group of students, actually demonstrated a loss of learning? Did your pretest actually measure their knowledge/skills in the beginning? Could they have guessed at answers or performed above their ability during the pretest? Did they demonstrate a dislike or fear of studying the unit? How did their performance during this unit compare with work in other classes or units?

Now, read item 2 and do the same. This time, create a list of every reasonable outside factor you can think of that would impact a teaching unit.

2. Look at outside factors.

Discuss your students' general interest in the subject and its relevancy to their lives. Did one or two students provide a negative influence during the unit? Did you have a lack of resources or support personnel? How many interruptions (due to assemblies, fire drills) occurred? Where did you or the textbook err? Did parents play a positive or negative support role for the unit? Did other faculty support the teaching of your unit, or was this a time when external homework was overwhelming?

On to item 3. Read the section and share your best and worst teaching habit. Ten minutes.

3. Look at your own performance.

What was your attitude toward the teaching of the unit? Did you prepare and plan as carefully as you might have? Did your lessons have a good balance of hands-on, discussion, technology, student-assigned work, or readings? Was your presentation of content right on target? Did you feel comfortable with the content you were teaching? Did you plan a logical flow to your unit? Did you provide several reinforcement activities so that students might attain content and skills?

Read item 4; share something you have done that really improved a lesson that was mediocre the last time you taught it.

4. Look at improvements.

Discuss all the suggestions that you have for improving the unit the next time you teach it. Do you need to modify your unit so that gifted students and those with learning disabilities will find your unit more valuable? Did you allow enough time for lessons? For activities? Were your resources broad and deep enough to interest all of your students?

What about your performance in the classroom? Do you need to learn new methods of presentation? How might you go about learning those new methods? What bothered you about your performance? What things did you do that really showed your talents as a teacher? Reflect upon your performance and evaluate yourself using high standards—your perception of a very effective first-year teacher. Are there alignment, assessment, management, or adaptations skills you must develop as soon as possible? Or within the year? How will you do that?

Appendix P

Evaluation Forms for Student Teaching Supervisors

Cooperating Teacher's Evaluation of University Site Supervisor Expertise

As part of the ongoing evaluation of the student teaching experience, we ask your assistance in helping us to assess the effectiveness of our site supervision faculty. Please evaluate the expertise of the university supervisor with whom you worked this term by circling the letter that best describes the level of performance you received/observed. Please do not identify the supervisor by name.

E *Excellent*: The supervisor exceeded my expectations!
G *Good:* I was comfortable with the level of performance.
F *Fair:* I believe performance could be improved.
P *Poor:* Performance definitely needs improving.

The university supervisor

1. Met with me to establish guidelines/expectations for the student teaching term. E G F P
2. Appeared to take the time to learn our building policies and procedures. E G F P
3. Conferred with the student teacher and myself at the beginning of student teaching to review the requirements described in the student teaching handbook(s) or published materials. E G F P
4. Was fully aware of WOU program requirements. E G F P
5. Assisted in evaluating lesson plans. E G F P
6. Provided me and the student teacher with written feedback using forms provided by the College of Education. E G F P
7. Made at least six evaluative or supportive visits to the school site during student teaching. E G F P
8. Has made plans for, or participated in, a final, three-way conference to complete the "Student Teaching Summary Report." E G F P
9. Evaluated the student's work samples and provided feedback or comments. E G F P
10. Appears to be effective in working with the public school staff. E G F P
11. Provided me with specific information about how I can contact him/her between school visits if necessary. E G F P
12. Utilized scheduled or unscheduled observations in the assessment of the student's performance. E G F P
13. Represented Western Oregon University in a professional manner. E G F P
14. Has interacted positively and pleasantly with me. E G F P

(form continues next page)

In addition, we are gathering information about supervision issues so we can best meet your needs when you agree to work with a student from WOU. Please rate your level of satisfaction with the issues listed below and let us know of any particular concerns you have regarding the supervision of students.

	excellent		poor	
1. The request to be a cooperating teacher was made in a timely way.	4	3	2	1
2. Expectations for student requirements are clearly communicated by the College of Education staff.	4	3	2	1
3. My role and responsibilities as a cooperating or mentor teacher were clearly communicated to me.	4	3	2	1
4. Students come to the practicum with the instructional skills to be effective in the classroom.	4	3	2	1
5. Students come to the classroom with the interpersonal skills to be effective in the classroom.	4	3	2	1
6. I feel College of Education staff do a good job of matching students with classrooms.	4	3	2	1
7. There is sufficient collaboration with the College of Education staff.	4	3	2	1
8. I am clear about what to do if I perceive that there are problems.	4	3	2	1
9. I am adequately reimbursed for my responsibilities.	4	3	2	1

10. When you invest your time and effort in supervising a student, do you feel that you receive some benefits other than the reimbursement? If so, what are the benefits?

11. Please give us some feedback on what we have been doing well and what you would like to see continued.

12. Have there been any problems regarding your supervision of students? Please explain.

Please accept our thanks for devoting so much time to our students and for taking time to provide us with this information.

University Supervisor's Evaluation of Cooperating Teacher Expertise

Please fill out a form for each cooperating teacher assigned to your student teachers. Please do not indicate the name of the student or the cooperating teacher on this form. Return this form to the Office of Field Services.

Evaluate the expertise of the cooperating teacher by circling the letter that best describes the level of assistance you/your student received during the student teaching experience.

E *Excellent:* The teacher exceeded my expectations!
G *Good:* I was comfortable with the level of assistance.
F *Fair:* I perceived a need for more assistance.
P *Poor:* No assistance was received in this area.

The cooperating teacher

1. Provided a climate that allowed my student to obtain necessary skills for success in teaching. E G F P
2. Let the student assume full responsibility teaching for at least 150 minutes per day during the weeks of student teaching. E G F P
3. Assisted the student in the selection of appropriate topics to be taught. E G F P
4. Helped the student identify and develop his/her own style of teaching. E G F P
5. Supported the use of multiple approaches in the teaching of information/skills. E G F P
6. Encouraged the use of creativity in lessons. E G F P
7. Was open to discussing physical changes in the classroom organization that would "fit" the student teacher's teaching style. E G F P
8. Provided relevant experiences (e.g., observation, small group/total group teaching, parent conferences, professional meetings). E G F P
9. Assisted the student to develop lesson plans and learning activities that were appropriate to this grade level or discipline area. E G F P
10. Assisted the student in selecting and using appropriate evaluation procedures. E G F P
11. Assisted the student in interpreting learning gains from assessment data. E G F P
12. Evaluated lesson plans and provided suggestions for improvement. E G F P
13. Assisted the student in the improvement of teaching and management strategies. E G F P
14. Evaluated performance by observing and providing a written critique for at least four class sessions during the full-responsibility teaching weeks, or shared critiques with me. E G F P

Student Evaluation of University Site Supervisor Expertise

Evaluate the expertise of your university site supervisor by circling the letter that best describes the level of performance you received/observed during your student teaching term.

E *Excellent*: The supervisor exceeded my expectations!
G *Good*: I was comfortable with the level of performance.
F *Fair:* I believe performance could be improved.
P *Poor:* Performance definitely needs improving.

The university supervisor

1. Met with me to establish guidelines/expectations for the student teaching term. E G F P

2. Appeared to take the time to learn building policies and procedures relevant to my placement. E G F P

3. Conferred with my cooperating teacher and me at the beginning of student teaching to review the requirements described in the student teaching handbook or publications. E G F P

4. Was fully aware of program requirements. E G F P

5. Assisted in evaluating lesson plans. E G F P

6. Provided me and the cooperating teacher with written feedback using forms provided by the College of Education. E G F P

7. Made at least six evaluative or supportive visits to the school site during the term. E G F P

8. Participated in the Student Teaching Seminar as a speaker or during small group sessions. E G F P

9. Has made plans for, or participated in, a final, three-way conference to complete the "Student Teaching Summary Report." E G F P

10. Planned appropriate small group seminars during the term. E G F P

11. Evaluated my work sample(s) and provided feedback or comments. E G F P

12. Appeared to be effective in working with the public school staff. E G F P

13. Provided me with specific information about how I can contact him/her between school visits if necessary. E G F P

14. Used scheduled or unscheduled observations in the assessment of my teaching. E G F P

15. Clearly communicated his/her methods for assessing my performance. E G F P

16. Represented Western Oregon University in a professional manner. E G F P

17. Has interacted positively and pleasantly with me. E G F P

18. Was effective in providing me with information from the campus regarding preregistration and other activities I was unaware of when I was in the schools every day. E G F P

19. Provided helpful small group meetings. E G F P

20. Served as a resource for useful methods, materials, and ideas when I needed assistance. E G F P

Appendix Q

TWS Observation Form

Formative Evaluation Term Four
(To be completed during the 5th week of term)

Candidate's Name		Date
School	Authorization Level	Subject Area(s)

The information reported on this form presents formative judgments by the candidate's supervisors about his or her performance on the TSPC-prescribed teaching competencies by the middle of Term 4 of the program.

Directions: Circle the appropriate number by each area of competence, to attest to the candidate's current level of performance.

1 = not yet observed   2 = at expected level   3 = serious concern

In **PLANNING FOR INSTRUCTION**, the teacher candidate

1	2	3	a.	Selects or writes learning goals for units of instruction that are consistent with the school's long-term curriculum goals, state content standards and district standards, research findings on how students learn, and the physical and mental maturity of one's students.
1	2	3	b.	Determines the current performance level of one's students with respect to the learning goals established for a unit of instruction.
1	2	3	c.	Establishes objectives within the unit of instruction that will be useful in formulating daily lessons and in evaluating the progress of students toward the attainment of unit goals.
1	2	3	d.	Determines content, skills, and processes that will assist students in accomplishing desired unit outcomes and designs learning activities that lead to their mastery.
1	2	3	e.	Selects and organizes materials, equipment, and technologies needed to teach a unit of instruction.
1	2	3	f.	Adapts unit and lesson plans for students with diverse needs and for students with varying cultural, social, and linguistic backgrounds.
1	2	3	g.	Estimates the time required within a unit for teacher-directed instruction, student-managed learning and practice, student evaluation/reporting, and reteaching/problem solving.

Comments/goals for improvement:

1 = not yet observed 2 = at expected level 3 = serious concern

In **ESTABLISHING A CLASSROOM CLIMATE CONDUCIVE TO LEARNING**, the teacher candidate

1 2 3 a. Affirms the dignity and worth of all students and provides the positive support students need to be effective learners.

1 2 3 b. Communicates classroom rules and behavioral expectations that provide a safe and orderly environment for learning, are appropriate to the level of development of students, and are consistent with laws governing student rights and responsibilities.

1 2 3 c. Applies to all students principles of gender equity and racial justice and applies principles of least restrictive environment for students with disabilities.

1 2 3 d. Models appropriate social behavior and provides meaningful reinforcement when it occurs.

1 2 3 e. Takes into account the influence of the physical, social, and emotional climates of students' homes and the community on motivation and behavior.

1 2 3 f. Monitors student conduct and takes appropriate action when misbehavior occurs.

1 2 3 g. Interacts thoughtfully and courteously with students and their parents and resolves conflicts in a professional manner, respecting the cultural context of the community.

1 2 3 h. Uses classroom time effectively to provide maximum time for learning.

1 2 3 i. Manages instructional transitions decisively and without loss of instructional time.

1 2 3 j. Arranges and sets up instructional materials and equipment in advance of class to facilitate their effective and efficient use during lessons.

1 2 3 k. Coordinates the use of instructional assistants, parent volunteers, student assistants, and other support personnel to achieve instructional objectives, if these resources are available in the school setting.

Comments/goals for improvement:

____

____

1 = not yet observed 2 = at expected level 3 = serious concern

In **ENGAGING STUDENTS IN PLANNED LEARNING ACTIVITIES**, the teacher candidate

1 2 3 a. Applies organizational structures appropriate for the developmental level of students including individual and group instruction.

1 2 3 b. Communicates learning outcomes to be achieved and focuses student interest on tasks to be accomplished.

1 2 3 c. Implements instructional plans that employ knowledge of subject matter and basic skills.

1 2 3 d. Uses a variety of research-based educational practices that reflect how students learn, is sensitive to individual differences and diverse cultures, and encourages parent participation;.

1 2 3 e. Emphasizes instructional techniques that promote critical thinking and problem solving and that encourages divergent as well as convergent thinking.

1 2 3 f. Monitors the engagement of students in learning activities and the progress they are making to determine if the pace or content of instruction needs to be modified to assure that all students accomplish lesson and unit objectives.

Comments/goals for improvement:

1 = not yet observed 2 = at expected level 3 = serious concern

In **EVALUATING, ACTING UPON, AND REPORTING STUDENT PROGRESS IN LEARNING**, the teacher candidate

1 2 3 a. Selects and/or develops tests, performance measures, observation schedules, student interviews, or other formal or informal assessment procedures that are appropriate to determine the progress of all students including those from diverse cultural or ethnic backgrounds.

1 2 3 b. Documents student progress in accomplishing state content standards and district standards, prepares data summaries that show this progress to others and informs students, supervisors, and parents about progress in learning.

1 2 3 c. Evaluates student progress in learning and refines plans for instruction, and establishes alternative learning options or makes appropriate referrals.

1 2 3 d. Collaborates with parents, colleagues, and members of the community to provide internal and external assistance to students and their families if needed to promote student learning.

1 2 3 e. Assembles, reflects upon, interprets, and communicates evidence of one's own effectiveness as a teacher including evidence of success in fostering student progress in learning; and uses evidence of effectiveness in planning for further instruction.

Comments/goals for improvement:

1 = not yet observed 2 = at expected level 3 = serious concern

In **EXHIBITING PROFESSIONAL BEHAVIORS, ETHICS, AND VALUES**, the teacher candidate

1 2 3 a. Is dependable, conscientious, and punctual;

1 2 3 b. Meets work schedule demands;

1 2 3 c. Is aware of the importance of professional appearance and demeanor;

1 2 3 d. Is aware of and acts in accordance with school policies and practices;

1 2 3 e. Is respectful of cultural patterns and expectations that operate within a school;

1 2 3 f. Interacts constructively with colleagues, administrators, supervisors, educational assistants, and parents;

1 2 3 g. Performs advisory functions for students in formal and informal settings;

1 2 3 h. Functions as a member of an instructional team to achieve long-term curriculum goals, state content standards, and district standards;

1 2 3 i. Exhibits energy, drive, and determination to make one's school and classroom the best possible environment for teaching and learning; and

1 2 3 j. Exhibits energy, drive, and determination to become a professional educator.

Comments/goals for improvement:

We have conferred in the summary of the candidate's classroom performance. Our signatures below attest to our judgments regarding the proficiency of the teacher candidate during Term 4.

As professional educators we recommend the student evaluated above do the following:

___ Continue preparation for a teaching license.
___ Be required to complete an individualized contract to remedy deficiencies.
___ Discontinue preparation for a teaching license.

Name of Teacher Education Supervisor

Institution Date Signature

Name of Mentor Teacher

School/District Date Signature

Appendix R

Mini-Work Sample–Middle School (Spanish)

TWS Components	Availability	Quality of Component
Context description	Provided	Adequate. Most of the significant factors describing the community and the school are provided. A more complete description of the children would help–general academic ability and why they are enrolled in this class (is it an elective as implied?). Identified TAG and IEP students. Are there aides available?
Rationale	Provided	Adequate. Connected her five topics to national and state standards. Also connected the unit theme and topics to middle school needs. No connection made, however, to pre-instructional academic status of the pupils.
Goals and Objectives	Provided	Thorough. Connected her goals and objectives to Oregon's CCGs. Objectives seemed to be aligned with goals and to be written clearly.
Instructional Steps	Provided	Adequate. Introduction of self was good idea. Short lectures followed by activities should have been effective. Not clear whether the "Verb Pictures" activity was demonstrated prior to pupils' use of it.
Assessment	Missing	Thin. Example items or even the whole test were not provided.
Learning gain data	Provided	Adequate. Data for individuals and clusters were provided. Would liked to have also seen an analysis by objectives, by goals, and by topics.
Reflection on data	Provided	Thorough. Made persuasive connections between pupil learning gains and the content she taught, her assessments, and the pupils' needs. Good structure.
Reflection on self	Provided	Very weak. The end of lesson reflections were much more informative than this section. It was not made explicit what she thought she still needed to learn and how she intended to accomplish that.
General comments	Only one of her 12 lessons is shown here. The context description was abbreviated and her small display of pupil work was eliminated.	

SETTING

This work sample was taught to the second period beginning Spanish class at _____ Middle School in McMinville, Oregon. The following is a description of the setting, the community, the school, and the classroom.

THE COMMUNITY

McMinville is a small town of about 21,000 people in Yamhill county, Oregon. The town lies southwest of Portland, and northwest of the state capitol, Salem. Situated in the heart of the fertile Willamette Valley, McMinville enjoys a prosperous economy based in farming, nurseries, timber, and wineries. McMinville is experiencing the benefits and challenges of a state-wide population boom, as immigrants move north from Mexico, Central America, and California. In the last decade, immigration from out of state represented 30% of local population growth. New housing is up, retail business is growing, and more school children enter the schools every year. Despite rapid growth, McMinville still has a small town flavor. The average family income is a modest $28,303. On average, a home sells in McMinville for about $72,000.

McMinville School District serves over 4,800 students. The district includes six elementary schools, two middle schools, and a high school. It employs 275 certified teachers. Strong local support for the schools is reflected in relatively well-maintained facilities, strong extra-curricular programs, and strong performance in national standardized test scores.

________ Middle School is a new building located near the old downtown section of McMinville. The school serves approximately 630 students, grades 6 through 8. _________ is headed by one principal and one vice-principal. Two counselors are on staff. The faculty consists of 39 certified teachers, including one ESL and one foreign language instructor. The school is supported by 12 classified educational assistants and three secretarial staff members. Classes at ______ are on a unique four period block schedule. Each grade takes exploration courses or "encore classes" during one of the four blocks times. The encore classes alternate on an A/B schedule, so that students attend two encore classes one day, and two different ones the next. This schedule poses certain challenges for the elective teachers. They teach twelve separate groups of students and see any one class only every other day.

THE CLASSROOM

This work sample was taught to the second period beginning Spanish class. The class meets for 50 minutes every other "B" day. Thirty-two eighth-grade students, ages 13 to 14, attend the class. The class consists of 15 girls and 17 boys.

The student population of the class is diverse. Adaptations were made for one tag student and two students on Individual Education Plans. The latter two students need support with learning, organization skills, and behavior. I provide that support, as special education specialists are not available to assist during this class.

The classroom comfortably accommodates about 30 students. Students sit at long tables arranged so that the teacher can move easily throughout the classroom. An overhead projector is positioned in the front of the classroom. Computers are available for use in a computer lab.

The topic chosen for this work sample is "¿Que Pasa?" (What's happening?). The unit topic and contained objectives are guided by a proficiency approach to teaching a foreign language. The ¿Que Pasa? topic provides a meaningful context in which to develop language proficiency in the five areas of speaking, reading, writing, listening, and culture. In the course of the unit, students learn new functions such as talking about daily activities and talking about the weather. Learning of specific grammatical features is guided by these broader communicative functions.

Oregon's Common Curriculum Goals (CCG) for second languages are proficiency oriented and adopted from the guidelines of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. The ¿Que Pasa? unit is guided by the following CCGs for the novice level student of foreign languages:

- (Oral) The student will be able to use limited memorized material in simple statements or questions.
- (Writing) The student will be able to copy, list, and write simple paragraphs using memorized or extremely familiar material.
- (Listening) The student will be able to understand short utterances drawn from familiar material and pick out main ideas and key words.
- (Reading) The student will be able to pick out main ideas and key words and read short narratives and dialogues using familiar memorized material.
- (Culture) The student will be able to display limited awareness in basic, culturally specific verbal and nonverbal behavior.

Student needs also drive the unit topic and objectives. Particularly at the middle school level, students need to see a direct purpose for communication in a second language, and they need to feel personally involved in the topic. New language structures are best practiced in a familiar context. The ¿Que Pasa? topic provides a context that allows students to share personal information. The topic also provides a backdrop for learning about new cultures. As students learn to use the new language to share information about "what's happening" in their lives, they also learn about life in other Spanish-speaking cultures.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Common Curriculum Goal #1. (Speaking) The students will be able to use limited memorized material in simple statements or questions.

- Unit goal 1.0. The students will make simple statements and questions to communicate orally about common activities and their frequency.

Objective 1.1. Following a lesson on daily activities and adverbs of frequency, the students will be able to ask and answer questions correctly regarding how often they do things, using six expressions of frequency. (Lesson 3)

Objective 1.2. Following a lesson on "quien" (who) in the singular and plural, the students will be able to answer correctly one oral question about who is doing things, using the proper form of "quien" and "quienes." (Lesson 4)

Objective 1.3. Following a lesson on "gustar" + infinitive, the students will be able to ask and answer six questions regarding what they like to do together using proper forms of "gustar" + infinitive. (Lesson 5)

Objective 1.4. Following a lesson on ER and IR verb conjugations, the students will be able to answer one question regarding activities in a picture using the correct verb ending. (Lesson 6)

Objective 1.5. Following a lesson on the conjugation of ER and IR verbs, the students will be able to answer one personal question regarding the proper conjugation of a new ER or IR verb. (Lesson 7)

Objective 1.6. Students will use one new time expression correctly to answer one oral question about what they do during the day. (Lesson 8)

Objective 1.7. Students will be able to use dates correctly when answering one spoken question. (Lesson 10)

Common Curriculum Goal #2. (Writing) The students will be able to copy, list and write simple paragraphs using memorized or extremely familiar material.

- Unit goal 2.0. The students will list and write simple paragraphs about common activities and their frequency.

Objective 2.1. Following an introduction to the unit and a review of the conjugation of verbs in the present tense, students will become familiar with new unit vocabulary by drawing a picture of a verb and writing one sentence in Spanish that represents the action. (Lesson 1)

Objective 2.2. After watching a video and participating in a class discussion, the students will write about things they observed Spanish speaking teens do in their free time using eight Spanish verbs in simple sentences. (Lesson 2)

Objective 2.3. Following a lesson on daily activities, the students will be able to write five sentences using the correct adverb of frequency to express how often they do certain daily activities. (Lesson 3)

Objective 2.4. Following a lesson on ER and IR verb conjugations, the students will be able to write a sentence to portray an action in a picture, using the correct verb tense. (Lesson 6)

Objective 2.5. Following a lesson on the conjugation of ER and IR verbs, the students will be able to write the proper conjugation of 9 ER/IR verbs in a writing exercise. (Lesson 7)

Objective 2.6. Students will write three sentences using the three new time expressions to describe what they and their friends do during a typical day. (Lesson 9)

Objective 2.7. Students will be able to list in Spanish three activities common to particular months and seasons. (Lesson 10)

Objective 2.8. Students will be able to write four sentences accurately describing the weather. (Lesson 11)

Common Curriculum Goal #3. (Listening) The students will be able to understand short utterances drawn from familiar material, i.e., pick out main ideas and key words.

- Unit goal 3.0. The students will understand brief spoken material describing common activities and their frequency.

Objective 3.1. Following a lesson on new verbs and adverbs of frequency, students will be able to match five different adverbs of frequency with the correct person in a listening activity. (Lesson 3)

Objective 3.2. Following a lesson on "quien" (who) in the singular and plural, the students will be able to match four people with pictures of the activity they hear described. (Lesson 4)

Objective 3.3. Following a lesson on "gustar" + infinitive, the students will be able to match four pictures with four different activities described in a listening exercise. (Lesson 5)

Objective 3.4. Following a lesson on the conjugation of ER and IR verbs, the students will be able to match six activities with the people doing them in a listening exercise. (Lesson 7)

Objective 3.5. Students will match four pictures with the proper time expression in a listening activity. (Lesson 9)

Objective 3.6. Students will be able to match six sentences in a listening activity with a picture depicting a season. (Lesson 10)

Common Curriculum Goal #4. (Reading) The students will be able to pick out main ideas and key words, and read short narratives and dialogues using familiar memorized material.

- Unit goal 4.0. The students will pick out key words and main ideas while reading short narratives and dialogues about common activities and their frequency.

Objective 4.1. Following a review of daily activities, the students will be able to determine whether seven activities were performed by reading a description of a boy's typical week. (Lesson 4)

Objective 4.2. Following a lesson on "gustar" + infinitive, the students will be able to read and respond to a survey of six questions about what they like to do using "gustar" + infinitive. (Lesson 5)

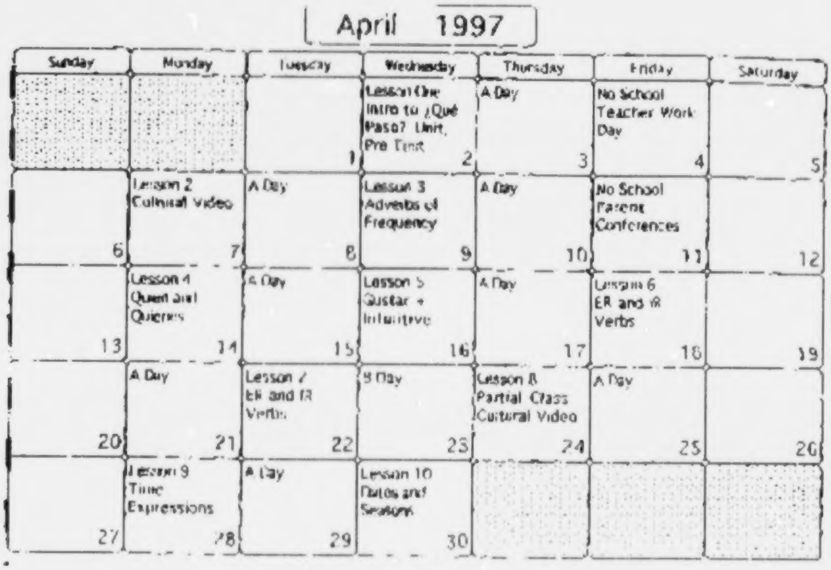
Objective 4.3. Students will show through the proper sequencing of eight pictures that they recognize three new time expressions in a reading passage. (Lesson 9)

Common Curriculum Goal #5. (Culture) The students will be able to display at least a limited, awareness of basic, culturally specific verbal and non-verbal behavior.

Unit goal 5.0. The students will appreciate some of the cultural similarities and differences between common daily activities in the United States and in Spanish speaking cultures.

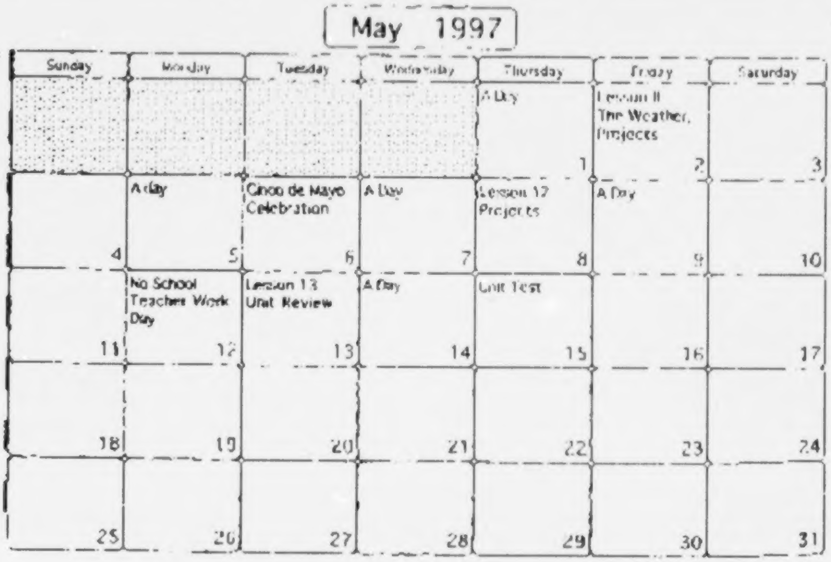
Objective. Following a video and a class discussion, the students will compare and contrast three common free-time activitiesof their own with those of many Spanish-speaking teens. (Lesson 2)

APRIL/MAY CALENDAR



April 1997

Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
		1	Lesson One Intro to ¿Qué Paso? Unit, Pre Test 2	A Day 3	No School Teacher Work Day 4	5
6	Lesson 2 Cultural Video 7	A Day 8	Lesson 3 Adverbs of Frequency 9	A Day 10	No School Parent Conferences 11	12
13	Lesson 4 Quiero and Quieres 14	A Day 15	Lesson 5 Gustar + Infinitive 16	A Day 17	Lesson 6 ER and IR Verbs 18	19
20	A Day 21	Lesson 7 ER and IR Verbs 22	B Day 23	Lesson 8 Partial Class Cultural Video 24	A Day 25	26
27	Lesson 9 Time Expressions 28	A Day 29	Lesson 10 Dates and Seasons 30			



May 1997

Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
				A Day 1	Lesson 11 The Weather, Projects 2	3
4	A day 5	Cinco de Mayo Celebration 6	A Day 7	Lesson 12 Projects 8	A Day 9	10
11	No School Teacher Work Day 12	Lesson 13 Unit Review 13	A Day 14	Unit Test 15	16	17
18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	31

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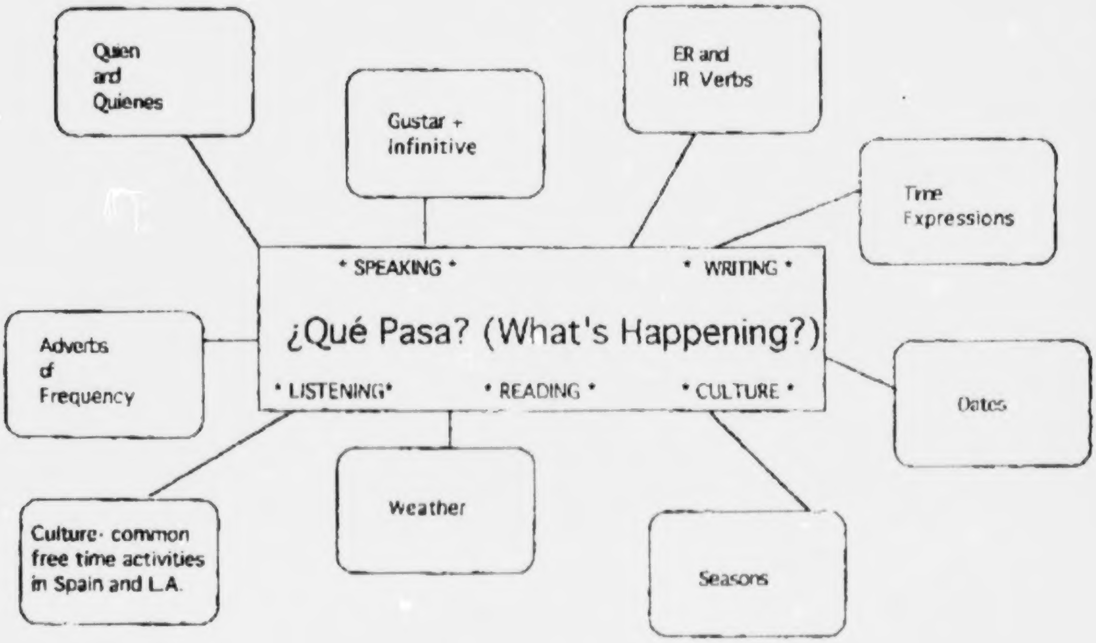
UNIT MAP


Quien and Quienes
Gustar + Infinitive
ER and IR Verbs
Time Expressions
* SPEAKING *
* WRITING *
¿Qué Pasa? (What's Happening?)
* LISTENING*
* READING *
* CULTURE *
Adverbs of Frequency
Dates
Culture- common free time activities in Spain and L.A.
Weather
Seasons

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 2, 1997

Lesson 1

Topic: Introduction to ¿Que Pasa? Unit, Pre-testing

Objective: (Writing) Following an introduction to the unit and a review of the conjugation of verbs in the present tense, students will become familiar with new unit vocabulary by drawing a picture of a verb and writing one sentence in Spanish that represents the action.

Motivation: Personal introduction, Pair work drawing activity

Procedures:

(10 min.) Introductions:

1. Introduce self; pass around pictures.
2. Discuss behavior expectations.
   Reassert my posted rules. Ask for input. Change or add anything?
3. Discuss class structure.
   Warm-up.
   Presentation, new stuff

Three activities: listening, reading/writing, speaking. Homework time.

4. Present grading policy: One third test and quizzes. One third in-class assignments and homework. One third oral projects and participation. Explain work sample project: pre-test and post-test.
   (25 min.) Students take written pre-test.

(5 min.) Introduce ¿Que Pasa? Unit: Learn to talk about what is happening. Learn lots of action words or verbs.

- Ask for examples of some verbs in Spanish.
- Write one on board and conjugate
- Point out they are AR verbs. ER and IR endings are different.
- Write the verb COMER on the board and conjugate; underline the endings.

(15 min.) Verb Pictures:
Work in groups of three. Each group will get two pieces of paper. Each paper has a verb on it in Spanish. Look up the verb in the glossary, and draw a picture to represent it. Underneath, conjugate the verb correctly in a sentence. IEP Adaptation: Cooperative pair work, assist individuals with sentences.

Materials:
Personal photos
Discipline plan notebook
Unit 1 written pre-test
Construction paper with verbs on top
Marking pens/crayons

Postanalysis:
The first day went quite smoothly. The first presentation part was well planned, and I managed to portray confidence and high expectations. Sharing personal information and photos helped break the ice, too.

I could have been more prepared in terms of the introduction of the unit, and the review of verb conjugations. An overhead would have been smoother than writing on the board. The verb pictures were a fun way to get kids involved in the unit. It would have helped to have a model to show them to avoid some of the questions and confusion about my directions.

Assessment Data, Second Period

Student	Pretest	Posttest	% Gain
A	32.35%	80.36%	48%
L	32.35%	89.29%	57%
N	35.29%	85.71%	50%
Q	38.24%	80.36%	42%
Quartile 1	34% Average	84% Average	50% Average
S	41.18%	73.21%	32%
B	41.18%	85.71%	45%
N	41.18%	92.86%	52%
A	44.12%	78.57%	34%
C	50.00%	69.64%	20%
N	50.00%	96.43%	46%
Quartile 2	45% Average	83% Average	38% Average
M	52.94%	96.43%	43%
P	52.94%	91.07%	38%
L	52.94%	100.00%	47%
J	52.94%	75.00%	22%
K	52.94%	76.79%	24%
G	55.88%	66.07%	10%
L	55.88%	100.00%	44%
Quartile 3	54% Average	86% Average	32% Average
N	58.82%	85.71%	27%
C	58.82%	100.00%	41%
K	58.82%	91.07%	32%
J	58.82%	78.57%	20%
M	61.76%	76.79%	15%
Z	61.76%	80.36%	19%
S	61.76%	89.29%	28%
M	61.76%	91.07%	29%
Quartile 4	60% Average	87% Average	27% Average

DATA ANALYSIS

The pretest and posttest for the ¿Que Pasa? unit were closely parallel. Both covered unit material while testing for proficiency levels in the area of listening, writing, reading, and culture. All students showed significant learning gains.

Second period data showed predicted trends among quartiles. The two lowest quartiles in terms of pre-test data also showed the lowest post-test average percentages, even though significant growth was made. The same trends held true for the other quartiles. For example, the highest quartile in terms of pre-test scores also showed the highest post-test average score. The highest learning gains (averaging 50%) were made by the lowest percentile, and the lowest learning gains were made by the highest percentile (averaging 27%).

Test scores across the board tended to be rather high for second period, which suggests that the test and perhaps the unit material did not sufficiently challenge all students. In the future, I would adjust lessons to provide an adequate level of difficulty.

An informal item analysis of the pre- and post-tests shows that some of the communication skills are easier for all students than others. This is typical of early language acquisition: the "receptive" communication skills of listening and reading develop more quickly than the direct skills of speaking and writing. Results show that the listening portions of the tests were rather easy for all students, and the writing sections perhaps too difficult for most. In fact, the rather high test grades stem in part from the fact that one of the more difficult direct communication skills speaking — was not formally tested. (Due to time restraints, I chose to assess oral skills informally during classroom activities.)

In the future I would adjust class activities to provide more time practicing direct communication skills. I would also adjust my objectives for the receptive skills to raise expectations to a higher level.

REFLECTION ON DATA

In this essay I will evaluate various aspects of the processes of developing and teaching this unit. I will look at the content that was taught, the forms of assessment I used, the degree to which different student needs were met, and classroom management.

Lesson Content

One of my most important tasks as a teacher is to develop good lessons. I believe that time and creative energy invested in lesson planning will always pay off in learning gains from more involved students. As concerns about classroom management occasionally arise, my first recourse was always to plan a more exciting, involving, better paced lesson for the next day. Overall, I was pleased with the form and content of the lessons I developed for this unit.

Most of my lessons had the same basic structure. Each lesson began with a quick "warm-up" that helped students focus on the content of the lesson for the day. Then I presented new information and asked oral questions of students to practice the new material. Next, I led the class in two or three brief personalized activities to practice the new language using one of the four communication skills: listening, reading, speaking, or writing. This structured lesson helped middle school students stay on task and focused. The variety of high-paced activities helped keep their interest and involvement. This proficiency approach to teaching Spanish is much more fun and involving for the kids (and for the teacher!) than the traditional grammar-centered lessons. I did discover that some direct teaching of grammar is helpful, and even welcomed by students.

The actual content of the ¿Que Pasa? Unit was challenging for students. I had difficulty in settling on a unit that would incorporate effectively the various language skills students needed to learn, and in retrospect I would have liked to have presented the unit content in a more integrated, theme driven-context.

The unit goal I had most difficulty reaching was in teaching culture. Part of the difficulty again had to do with the very broad unit theme. It is much easier, for example,m to incorporate teaching culture into a unit on the family. I also lacked good materials for teaching this aspect, and I had difficulty in dreaming up my own activities and materials to present on this area. I plan to do a better job in the future of connecting the teaching of Spanish to learning about Spanish-speaking cultures by accessing updated materials and resources to integrate with my lessons.

Assessment

An analysis of pre- and post-test results shows significant learning gains for all students. Post-test results were quite high for some students, which led me to think that the test, and perhaps some of the unit material, was not challenging enough for students.

I developed and implemented contextualized assessment tools for this unit. Rather than giving students lists of words to translate or verbs to conjugate, I expected them to show that they could use the new language in real contexts. This was a different type of assessment for students, and I think just becoming familiar with this approach to learning a language was helpful to them. Students learned such real life language skills as listening and looking for contextual cues. They learned that they do not need to know every word in the new language to be able to communicate meaning.

I would have liked to have done more in terms of testing for oral proficiency. It would have taken precious time, and an informal assessment showed me that many students did not have the skills to use the language to answer the type of open-ended questions used for these assessments. I chose instead to ask targeted questions as part of daily lessons, and to record students' answers on cards as a part of ongoing class assessment.

Student Needs

The class was diverse in terms of student needs. When I began student teaching, some of the students were well connected with the class and were doing quite well. A significant portion were failing the course and had not learned much Spanish, or they perceived that they had not learned much. I sought to reach all of the students with personal attention and lesson adaptations, and I was pleased with the results. Lower quartile students showed significant learning gains, and definitely showed increased interest in the class. In seeking to serve all students, I think I failed to significantly challenge all higher level students. This is evident by their post-test grades and informal classroom assessment. In the future, I will seek to incorporate more adaptations into my teaching for the higher quartile students.

REFLECTION ON SELF

I found that the key to classroom management is a good lesson and a rapport with students. I focused on those two areas, and I did not have significant problems in classroom management. Interestingly, I found that I had fewer problems with my second period class, even though it was my biggest class, at 30 students. By second period, I usually felt at ease with teaching my lesson, having already tried it out on first period. I felt free to relax and have fun with the kids, and my positive attitude helped the students keep a positive attitude.

To a certain degree, I also accepted that I was walking into someone else's classroom, and that I would need to work within their system. Therefore, I did not implement certain things that I believe I will use with my own class to improve classroom management, such as a different seating arrangement and seating charts.

Appendix S

Competencies Checklist

SpEd 539: Student Teaching HL and SHL Competency Evaluation

Student Teacher	Cooperating Teacher
School Site	Cooperating Teacher
District	College Supervisor

Master teacher and student teacher should review these competencies three times during the term. Sign below when reviewed:

	Date	Cooperating teacher signature	Student teacher signature
First Review (by end of 3rd week)			
Midterm Evaluation			
Final Evaluation			

At the midterm conference, each competency will be rated according to the following descriptors:

AP = Adequate progress
NA = Not addressed yet
I = Addressed, but inadequate progress

At the final conference, each competency will be rated according to the following descriptors:

0 = No evidence of skill demonstrated to college supervisor or cooperating teacher
1 = Beginning to demonstrate skills but improvement is necessary
2 = Skills are acquired but demonstrated inconsistently
3 = Skills are mastered and demonstrated consistently
4 = Skills demonstrated to levels of proficiency that exceed expectations

	Midterm	Final	Comments
1.0 Plans for Instruction			
1.1 Gathers initial assessment data			
1.1.1 Selects, administers, and correctly scores appropriate norm-referenced tests			
1.1.2 Completes functional analysis of environmental requirements for individual students			
1.1.3 Gathers data to analyze and address inappropriate student behavior			
1.2 Participates in the writing of an IEP			
1.2.1 Uses initial assessment data to write present levels of performance for an IEP			
1.2.2 Writes a written agenda for an IEP meeting			
1.2.3 Participates in an IEP meeting with parent and other professionals			
1.2.4 Translates desired outcomes into annual goals and short term objectives for an IEP			
1.2.5 Applies principle of LRE in choosing instructional settings			
1.2.6 Develops transition plans based on requirements of next environment			
1.3 Plans individual and group instruction			
1.3.1 Uses initial assessment data to determine appropriate place to begin instruction			
1.3.2 Designs an original instruction plan for an individual student based on assessed needs			
1.3.3 Plans group instruction for individuals with similar needs (weekly written plans)			
1.3.4 Designs supports and/or curriculum modifications for student(s) with disabilities participating in regular class			
1.3.5 Selects and organizes instructional materials and adaptive equipment needed to implement instructional plans			
1.3.6 Selects appropriate data systems to measure student progress			
1.3.7 Makes modifications which accommodate the linguistic and cultural differences of students in class			
1.4 Takes into account students' behaviors when planning instruction			
1.4.1 Analyzes communicative intent of inappropriate behavior			
1.4.2 Includes behavior intervention as part of instructional plan			

2.0 Establishes classroom climate conducive to learning			
2.1 Manages behavior effectively in individual and group instruction			
2.2 Develops an atmosphere conducive to learning			
2.2.1 Adjusts physical environment (strategic seating, visibility, access to materials, etc.)			
2.2.3 Demonstrates fair and consistent treatment of individuals			
2.3 Explicitly teaches rules and routines which reflect high expectations of student behavior			
2.4 Schedules instructional activities during the period/day			
2.5 Coordinates the appropriate use of staff support to maximize instructional time			
2.6 Manages instructional transitions decisively and without loss of time			
2.7 Applies principle of LRE in planning and scheduling instruction			
2.8 Conducts disability awareness activities			
3.0 Implements Instructional Plans			
3.1 Keeps student attention by having materials ready, eliciting frequent responses and maintaining an appropriate pace			
3.2 Uses an appropriate lesson structure which begins with gaining the student's attention and ends with transition to a new activity			
3.3 Provides instruction using a variety of appropriate instructional techniques to achieve planned objectives, including cuing and prompting strategies			
3.4 In groups, gives all students equal opportunities to respond			
3.5 Gives appropriate feedback			
3.5.1 Gives feedback which is predominantly positive (ratio 4:1 positive to negative)			
3.5.2 Uses a correction procedure that leads to success			
4.0 Evaluates Student Progress			
4.1 Uses a variety of instruments and other assessment procedures (tests, observation, student and parent interviews, etc.) to evaluate student progress			
4.1.1 Records frequent (daily, twice-weekly, weekly) data on student performance			
4.1.2 Analyzes student performance at least weekly to determine if students are making progress toward the objective			
4.1.3 Assembles and analyzes samples of student work			
4.1.4 Makes changes when advancements or alterations are needed			
5.0 Demonstrates Professional Skills			
5.1 Reports to school on time and is regular in attendance			
5.2 Reports absences to master teacher and college supervisor before the absence			
5.3 Accepts and follows through with assigned responsibilities			

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